THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

TOWARD A CONCEPTUALIZATION OF IDEAL STYLES OF CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING IN SMALL GROUPS

by

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Toward A Conceptualization of Ideal Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making in Small Groups" submitted by Charles Douglass Ledgerwood, Jr. in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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DEDICATION

It is with pride that I dedicate this volume to my wife, Ann, my daughter Jo-Anne, and my sons Kirk, Kevin and Mark. We did it!

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to conceptualize three styles of curriculum decision-making which can serve as ideal types against which to compare the decision-making styles which curriculum committees are using or are planning to use.

Concepts used in constructing the three ideal styles of curriculum decision-making were drawn from theoretical literature in a number of fields and from an empirical case study of a curriculum committee at work.

Different styles of curriculum decision-making were described according to the characteristics they manifest on three categories of variables. It was hypothesized that the most influential variables are those which describe the basic paradigm, or world view, of the decision-makers. View of the universe, view of man and view of society were suggested as significant variables on which basic paradigms can be distinguished.

The educational platform of curriculum decision-makers (i.e., their beliefs and values about what the curriculum is and ought to be) was proposed as a second category of variables. View of curricular ends and view of curricular means were listed as important platform variables.

Both basic paradigm variables and educational platform variables describe the assumptions which underlie curriculum decision-making. Variables in the third category pertain to the decision-making processes, per se. The process variables selected for attention in the study were decision-making activities, interaction in the external

system, interaction in the internal system, and nature of sentiments.

Some of the different characteristics which each variable can display were described. Then, characteristics that share a common ethos were grouped together to form a particular ideal style of curriculum decision-making.

Three such styles were conceptualized. The hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making is characterized by a basic paradigm which attaches importance to classification, order and control; by an educational platform that emphasizes competition as a means of preparing students for their role in a stratified society; and by decision-making processes that rely on comprehensive prescriptions from people at the top of a centralized hierarchy.

Basic to the second, mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making is a paradigm that defines man as a self-directed being living in harmony with an interdependent universe. The educational platform of mutualistic decision-makers includes a belief in the symbiotic relationship of individual and societal goals and places high value on co-figurative learning. The decision-making process in the mutualistic style relies on incrementalism and regards participation as more important than efficiency.

The third, autonomous style of curriculum decision-making derives from a basic paradigm in which the world is viewed as entropic, man as egocentric and society as unstructured. The educational platform of groups who approximate this ideal style of curriculum decision-making exhibits a preference for educational goals and means that

maximize individualism. Major characteristics of the decision-making process in the autonomous style are devolved authority and laissez-faire leadership.

As ideal types, the styles of curriculum decision-making described in the study are really hypotheses. The study concludes with suggestions as to how the ideal styles might be refined through research and applied in practical situations designed to raise the critical consciousness of curriculum decision-makers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"Just as a mountain needs a valley to be a mountain, I need a world of other people and things to be an I." Writing and defending this thesis has been a growth experience which brought me somewhat closer to becoming an "I". The things which contributed to this growth were the hundreds of concepts with which I interacted while selecting the variables and characteristics which comprise ideal styles of curriculum decision-making.

The people who furthered my process of becoming were: Ted Aoki, whose scholarly questions concerning basic assumptions taught me how to see the world through alternative lenses; Harold Baker and Gordon McIntosh, whose support, encouragement, and guidance provided the environment for growth; Jim Bell and Don Massey, whose comments promoted value clarification; Elliot Eisner, whose challenges stretched my mind and whose commendations bolstered my confidence; Gene Torgunrud, whose insights helped me to fuse the practical and the theoretical; Ken Nixon and Merv Thornton, whose proof-reading skills improved my usage of the English language; Charmaine Eccles, whose self-imposed standards of typing have helped me to understand the beauty of excellence. To these people, and to my fellow graduate students, I say "Thank you".

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Chapter 1

PURPOSES, DEFINITIONS, PROBLEM AND OVERVIEW

Purposes of the Study

As increasing numbers of educators and lay persons become involved in making curricular decisions, it is important that they be critically conscious of the style of curriculum decision-making they employ. An important first-step toward such critical consciousness is to become aware of the assumptions and processes which are inherent in various approaches to curriculum decision-making.

This conceptual study attempts to explicate three styles of curriculum decision-making that might be displayed by small groups. The study attempts to accomplish the following tasks:

1. Identify, select, and categorize significant variables which distinguish alternative styles of curriculum decision-making;
2. Describe significant characteristics which each variable can display;
3. Isolate and label clusters of characteristics which logically stand together to form "ideal types" of curriculum decision-making styles;
4. Suggest ways in which these ideal types might be used as conceptual tools for describing and analyzing actual styles of curriculum decision-making.

The variables, characteristics, and ideal styles of curriculum decision-making identified by this study may prove useful to the following:

1. Curriculum committees who wish to increase their own awareness of their styles of curriculum decision-making;
2. Observers who wish to describe and/or analyze the style of a curriculum committee;
3. Persons who are engaged in the pre-service and in-service education of curriculum decision-makers; and
4. Theoreticians who wish to clarify the relationships between and among the variables which distinguish different styles of curriculum decision-making and to explicate further the relationships between and among the styles themselves.

Definition of Terms

Brief Definitions

Brief definitions of the key terms used in this study appear below. Each term is discussed more fully following this presentation of brief definitions.

Curriculum is the intended means and intended ends which guide teaching and learning.

Curriculum decision-making is the process that culminates with the choice of the intended means and intended ends which guide teaching and learning.

Style of curriculum decision-making is a self-consistent array of characteristics which distinguish a group of persons engaged in choosing the intended ends and intended means of teaching and learning.

Variables are properties that assume different characteristics as they occur in different styles of curriculum decision-making.

Paradigm variables are properties on which different basic beliefs, values, and ways of seeing the world are revealed.

Platform variables are properties on which different beliefs and values toward what the curriculum is and ought to be are revealed.

Process variables are properties on which different characteristics of the curriculum decision-making process are revealed.

Ideal type is a logical construction which serves as a comparison with empirical reality.

Small group is two to twenty people interacting in joint pursuit of a common goal.

Curriculum

> Curriculum workers, who have argued for decades about what the curriculum is, would be well advised to "get off the dime" by stating and tentatively agreeing upon at least one definition for each term in each separate discourse and carrying on from there. (Goodlad and Richter, 1966, p. 23)

In the present study, curriculum is defined as the intended ends and intended means which guide teaching and learning.

Before deciding upon this definition, the writer found it necessary to clarify two sets of distinctions: the distinction between ends and means, on the one hand, and the distinction between intents and actions, on the other. Figure 1.1 shows these two distinctions in quadratic form. The axes of the quadrangle are shown in dotted lines to indicate that the suggested distinctions are not always clear and/or acceptable. That is, people are not always able or willing to distinguish ends from means or intents from actions.

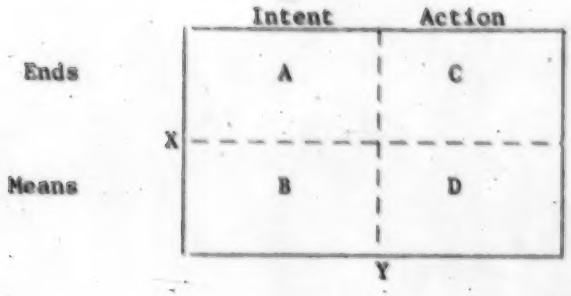

Figure 1.1

A Quadratic Representation of Ends-Means and Intent-Action

Various definitions of curriculum can be shown on Figure 1.1. Those who regard curriculum as everything that takes place under the aegis of the school doubtlessly include all four quadrants in their definition. Defining curriculum as "a structured series of intended learning outcomes", Johnson (1968, p. 4) limits curriculum to quadrant A. Presumably, quadrants A and B together form what Johnson calls the instructional plan, or program; quadrants C and D represent the instructional components of his curriculum and instruction systems.

Macdonald (1968) defines curriculum as "a plan and/or organizational pattern for channeling influence in appropriate directions . . . . Curriculum development does not take place in instruction but prior to instruction " (pp. 39, 41). The "appropriate directions" mentioned by Macdonald can be equated to the intended ends shown in quadrant A; the "organizational pattern for channeling influence" can be equated to the intended means of quadrant B. Presumably, quadrants C and D would be

labelled by Macdonald as instruction (Macdonald, 1965). Macdonald's notion that the curriculum is a "plan" or "design" which is completed prior to instruction is shared by Beauchamp (1968, p. 224), Huebner (1970, p. 1), and others. The same idea is conveyed by Jackson's (1966) distinction between the preactive and interactive phases of instruction (pp. 12ff.).

By defining curriculum as the intended ends and intended means which guide teaching and learning, the present study assigns curriculum to the left side of the Y axis in Figure 1.1; the right side of the Y axis is regarded as instruction, where instruction is defined as the operationalizing of intended ends and means of teaching and learning. These definitions are illustrated in Figure 1.2.

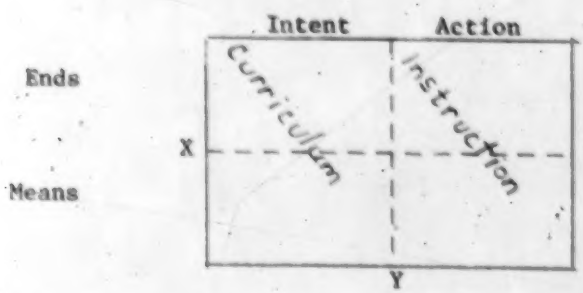

Figure 1.2

A Graphic Representation of Curriculum and Instruction

Style of Curriculum Decision-Making

In this study, style of curriculum decision-making refers to a self-

consistent array of characteristics which distinguish a group of persons engaged in choosing the intended ends and intended means of teaching and learning.

Style. The term style often refers to a manner of dress, a distinctive art form, a particular way of living. By examining its usage in any one of these contexts, one can see that a given style is comprised of a number of attributes or characteristics which share a common ethos or essential quality. The styles of two artists can be distinguished by, among other things, the subjects each one chooses to paint, the colours each one favours, the configuration of his strokes. Other artists may paint the same subjects. Still others may use the same colours and strokes. But the way in which the artist synthesizes the many elements of a painting enables the discerning critic to recognize the unique style of that artist.

So it is with curriculum decision-making in small groups. As a committee decides upon the intended ends and intended means of teaching and learning, it manifests a particular style of curriculum decision-making. Like that of the artist, the unique style of a given curriculum committee is comprised of many characteristics.

Style is used here in preference to the term model. A model is a conceptual analogy, an equation for a pattern of structures and functions. It is essentially an heuristic device for defining the relationships among elements in a system. Since a model is "an isomorph of reality" (Kaplan, 1964, p. 266), the three styles explicated in this study can be regarded as models of curriculum decision-making. However, as

a "scientific metaphor" (Kaplan, 1964, p. 265), a model connotes an emphasis on exactness and rigor (Kaplan, 1964, p. 283) which is not possible in the present study. Maclure (1972, p. 8) noted that, for a humanistic enterprise such as education, it is appropriate to borrow analogies from the arts and humanities rather than from the physical sciences. Drawing his analogy from styles of architecture, art, and dress, Maclure suggested that a particular orientation to curriculum development should be referred to as a style rather than as a model. His suggestion is accepted for purposes of the present study.

Variables and characteristics. To distinguish one style from another, it is necessary to identify variables and characteristics. A variable is a property that takes on different values (Kaplan, 1964, p. 32). The different values which a variable can assume are referred to as characteristics. Subject, colour and stroke are variables on which different artists can be distinguished; northern landscapes, bright reds, and bold slashes are characteristics that these variables might display in the works of a particular artist. Similarly, locus of authority, way of organizing the curriculum, and view of the universe are variables which distinguish different styles of curriculum decision-making; centralized curricular authority, a discipline-centred curriculum, and the notion of a predetermined universe share a common ethos that qualify them as characteristics of a particular styles of curriculum decision-making.

Categories of variables. The variables which comprise style of curriculum decision-making can be categorized in many ways. In the present study, these variables are placed in three categories: paradigm variables which define a curriculum committee's basic way of seeing the

world, platform variables which define the educational values and beliefs which the committee holds, and process variables which define the decision-making processes the committee uses.

Basic Paradigm

Many writers claim that human behavior is profoundly influenced by the ways we view the world. Maruyama (1971) stressed the importance of studying the "framework and internal structure of the process of reasoning" (p. 5). Kuhn (1962), Harman (1972) and others called for recognition of the different paradigms that determine our view of reality.

Kuhn (1970) used "paradigm" in at least two senses. In the first sense, paradigm "stands for the entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques, and so on shared by members of a given community" (p. 175). This definition is very broad and no doubt can encompass the notion of technique as well as the more limited notion of paradigm used in the present study. However, paradigm can also refer to " a time-tested and group-licensed way of seeing" (p. 189), where "seeing" includes not only perceiving a phenomenon but also interpreting it on the basis of tacit, intuitive knowledge shared by members of a community or culture. Though this way of seeing can still be analyzed, it is, according to Kuhn, a "philosophically deeper" phenomenon than the values, beliefs and techniques which comprise paradigm as used in the first sense.

To convey the concern of the present study with this deeper meaning, the qualifier "basic" is used. The basic paradigm of curriculum decision-makers refers to the unquestioned, tacit assumptions about the universe,

man and society that define the pre-existing and habitual screens through which they see the world (after Miller, Galanter, and Pribram, 1960; Kuhn 1962, 1970; Schwab, 1960, 1972; Watzlawick, et al., 1967; Harman, 1972; Maruyama, 1971, 1973).

Educational Platform

As curriculum decision-makers choose among available ends and means, their choices are influenced by the beliefs and values which they hold. The beliefs and values which curriculum decision-makers hold about education constitute their "educational platform", a term borrowed from the writings of Walker (1971a):

> The curriculum developer does not begin with a blank slate. He could not begin without some notion of what is possible and desirable educationally. The system of beliefs and values that the curriculum developer brings to his task and that guides the development of the curriculum is what I call the curriculum's platform . . . . The platform includes an idea of what is and a vision of what ought to be, and these guide the curriculum developer in determining what he should do to realize his vision.(p. 52)

Thus, the educational platform is a source of answers for three forms of inquiry: it permits a response to the designative question, "What is the curriculum?"; to the appraisive question, "What ought the curriculum to be?"; and to the prescriptive question, "What should be done about the curriculum?"[1]

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[1] These three forms of inquiry are discussed by Morris (1964), Brissey (1968), and Aoki (1971).

Decision-Making Process

In the present study, decision-making is defined as a process that includes the formulation of decision points, the generation of alternatives, the assessment of alternatives, and, finally, the choice from among alternatives. These activities may be carried out with varying degrees of consciousness, rationality and thoroughness. Nonetheless, they are part of the decision-making process (Walker, 1971a; Schwab, 1972).

Decision-making is used here synonymously with planning and with policy-making. March and Simon (1958) choose not to discriminate between decision-making and planning: "Planning, broadly defined, is of course indistinguishable from other kinds of decision-making" (p. 200). Dror (1968) regards both planning and policy-making as sub-sets of decision-making:

> . . . the main characteristics of public policy-making are largely shared with other related processes, especially with decision-making, which is a broader concept and includes policy-making, and with planning, which is also a species of decision-making and often overlaps policy-making. (p. 17)

It is common to regard policy-making as the process of establishing goals, and planning as the selection of means. Yet, many writers (e.g., Ackoff, 1970; Miklos, 1972) include both processes in their definitions of planning. In similar fashion, the present study employs the term "decision-making" to encompass the choosing of both ends and means.

Ideal Type

The styles of curriculum decision-making explicated by this study are intended to stand as ideal types. Weber (1949, pp. 42, 43) defines an ideal type as a rational, empirical-technical and logical construc-

tion which:

1. Serves as a comparison with empirical reality;
2. Permits the establishment of divergences or similarities;
3. Provides intelligible concepts for use in description; and
4. Facilitates the understanding and explanation of causality.

It is necessary to distinguish ideal types based primarily on logic from those ideals which are primarily an expression of a value judgement. An ideal type "has nothing to do with any type of perfection other than a purely logical one" (Weber, 1949, p. 99). The present study sets out ideal-type styles of curriculum decision-making against which actual styles can be compared and contrasted. Consistent with the above definition, the styles of curriculum decision-making are presented as logical constructs and not as representations of reality or as valued ideals of the writer.

Small Groups

Scholars have invested a great deal of effort in defining what is meant by a small group. After reviewing many definitions, Gibb (1964) defines a group as "two or more organisms interacting, in pursuit of a common goal, in such a way that the existence of many is utilized for the satisfaction of some needs of each" (p. 25). In a word, group members must share the "we-feeling" noted by Golembiewski (1962, p. 16).

Hare (1962) distinguishes a group from an aggregate or collection of individuals by attributing to a group five characteristics:

1. Members of a group are in interaction with each other;
2. They share a common goal;

3. They share a set of norms which give direction and limits to their activity;
4. They develop a set of roles;
5. They develop a network of interpersonal attraction.

Hare classifies as "small" a group of from two to twenty people; he borrows from Bales the notion that a group must be small enough that members of the group receive some impression or perception of each other (p. 10).

The present study is oriented toward curriculum decision-making that takes place as a small group activity. Though much of what follows could pertain to an individual or to a large group, the focus is on variables, characteristics and styles of curriculum decision-making that one would observe in a small group setting.

The committees of decision-makers to whom the following conceptions apply could be comprised of teachers, administrators, parents, students, university personnel, or any combination thereof. In Alberta, for instance, such committees as the following would engage in the group decision-making that is the focus of this study:

1. Department of Education curriculum committees;
2. Early Childhood Services parent advisory groups;
3. Curriculum committees at the school, district, or regional levels; or
4. Teacher/student committees choosing ends and means for the teaching and learning of a particular class.

The Problem

There is the need for greater knowledge of what is actually happening when people come together to make curricular decisions. The writer's experience with many curriculum committees, coupled with reports from the literature on curriculum and instruction, led to the realization that curriculum committees do not exhibit the same style. There are both subtle and not-so-subtle differences between and among curriculum committees.

Statement of the Problem

The following questions defined the problem of this study:

1. What are the variables on which one curriculum committee can be distinguished from another?
2. What characteristics can committees display in relation to each variable?
3. How can these characteristics be combined to form ideal styles of curriculum decision-making?
4. How can these ideal styles be used as conceptual tools in the description and analysis of actual curriculum committees?

Significance of the Problem

The problem attended to in this study is significant on two counts. First, curriculum theorists have so far failed in their efforts to find

a single model of curriculum decision-making that is descriptive of all curriculum committees. There is an urgent need to abandon the search for any one model and, instead, to produce the conceptual tools which will permit curriculum committees to be described and analyzed according to the various styles of curriculum decision-making which they employ. Second, curriculum decision-making is being increasingly decentralized, meaning that greater numbers of teachers, parents and learners have the opportunity to assume roles which they find difficult to understand. As do their more experienced counterparts, new curriculum builders need to have before them a clear exposition of the variables and characteristics from which they can choose in developing their own style of curriculum decision-making.

Background to the Problem in Alberta

A shifting locus of control. Under Section 93 of the British North America Act, the Canadian provinces are assigned the exclusive right to make laws in relation to education.[2] The assignment of education as a provincial responsibility has far-reaching implications for all facets of education in Canada. Of particular interest to the current study is the

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2 It should be noted that the federal government does exercise control over the education of certain groups such as Indians and the dependents of armed forces personnel.

fact that the legal and financial dominance of the provincial governments has led to curriculum decision-making being centralized within each province.

The Alberta Department of Education at one time prescribed the school curriculum in considerable detail. The province set external examinations and had a cadre of inspectors to ensure that the centrally-prescribed curriculum was followed. Now, the extended preparation of teachers, the availability of more and more learning resources, demands for local autonomy and the greater pluralism of society are some of the factors that are prompting the provincial government to give local school systems and classroom teachers an increasingly significant role in the curriculum decision-making processes.[3]

In 1968, a partial decentralization of responsibility for curriculum planning was formally provided for by Section 10 of the General Regulations under The Department of Education Act (Order-in-Council 271-68). Section 10, subsections a,b,c, and e reinforced the powers of the central authority (i.e., the Minister of Education and his Department). However, subsections d,f, and g delegated to the district, school and classroom levels a major share in the making of curricular decisions.

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3 It is somewhat ironic that greater decentralization in curriculum matters is taking place at a time when the administrative and financial control of Canadian education is becoming more centralized (Hodgson, 1973). The Faure Report (1972) comments that, "Educational development follows organic paths, some countries tending towards centralization, state control and a global system, and others towards decentralization, loosening of state control and greater variety" (p. 18).

The intent of Section 10 is clarified and extended by provisions of the new School Act adopted in 1970. Whereas Regulation 10 specified that "The Department of Education will prescribe courses of study . . .," the new Act uses the less mandatory, "The Minister may prescribe courses of study . . ." and permits the Minister to delegate all or any of his powers regarding curriculum to a school board.

Following passage of the new Act, and as an apparent indication of his government's willingness to decentralize one aspect of curriculum decision-making, the Minister of Education has delegated to school boards those powers assigned to him by Sections 12(2) (a) (ii) of the 1970 School Act, namely, the selection of texts and other reference materials. Still further evidence of the provision in the new School Act for the decentralization of curriculum planning is contained in a Policy Statement issued by the Department of Education in August, 1970. The Policy Statement makes it clear that courses of study prescribed by the Department of Education will be purposely flexible, thus allowing for the making of decisions at the district, school and classroom levels. Further, courses of study can be initiated at the local level and require Ministerial approval "only in those situations where the proposed course of study or pupil program is substantially or completely different from courses prescribed by the Minister" (Policy Statement, 1970).

Opportunities for local involvement. Thus, Alberta school boards and their employees have the legal right to plan courses of study and pupil programs subject only to a minimum of control from the central authority. Further, even the learning opportunities prescribed by the

Department of Education are so flexible as to allow many decisions to be made at the local level. Department handbooks provide that, at the Junior High School level, teachers and students will completely develop their own learning opportunities for the 75-175 minutes per week that are devoted to each of as many as three Group B Options. No course outlines are provided for these options. The Junior-Senior High School Handbook (1974) provides that senior high school students can earn three or five credits per year for special projects carried out under the direction of a certified teacher. A similar provision exists whereby students can earn an additional ten credits for work experiences supervised by a teacher. In the cases of both special projects and work experiences, the Department does not prescribe a course of study. These activities are initiated and planned at the local level.

Other subjects at the Junior and Senior High levels provide for varying degrees of local decision-making. Probably the most flexible course outlines are in the social studies. Teachers and students are given a great deal of latitude in selecting content and materials for two-thirds of the time devoted to social studies. For the remaining one-third time, they are free to study, in whatever way they see fit, any problem of current interest.

Reduction of central control. Changes in the nature of supervision and inspection and changes in the evaluation of students have further decreased the extent of central control. The Department of Education no longer employs inspectors who visit classrooms to see that provincially-prescribed curricula are being followed. Though Departmental

personnel still have the right to make such inspections, it is now intended that the Department's role be more consultative than regulatory. Visits by Departmental consultants usually take place only upon the invitation of teachers or in the course of a total-school assessment in which self-evaluation is the primary goal. Where formal inspections do take place, they are usually carried out by officials of the local school system.

The past five years have witnessed the total elimination of external examinations set by the Department of Education. Grade IX examinations were withdrawn in 1972. The school years 1972-73 and 1973-74 comprised the transition period during which all senior high schools in the province were accredited in order to evaluate their own Grade XII students. Schools did not need to request accreditation; it was automatic. Schools that wished to do so were able to use Departmental examinations in matriculation subjects during the 1973-74 school year but are now required to devise their own "fair and just method of evaluation" (Department of Education Directive, February, 1973).

Support for decentralization of curricular control. The notion of decentralized curricular control has been strongly endorsed by both the Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.) and the Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.). The A.T.A. has long considered that the professional prerogatives of teachers should include the right to make decisions concerning what to teach and how to teach it. As early as 1968, this opinion was expressed by former Executive Secretary of the A.T.A., S.C.T. Clarke, when he warned that "Young Turks" in the teaching pro-

fession wanted a hand in the making of educational decisions, particularly those of a curricular nature (Clarke, 1968). A more formal expression of this desire for a role in curriculum decision-making is evident in Policy Resolution 1.A.12 passed successively at the 1967, 1970, and 1972 Annual Representative Assemblies:

> BE IT RESOLVED, that the Alberta Teachers' Association press for increased local autonomy and local participation in curriculum building. (A.T.A. Members' Handbook, 1972, p. 144)

In a similar vein, the Alberta School Trustees' Association has repeatedly passed resolutions urging the Minister of Education "to expand the power of local jurisdictions to modify and develop curriculum" (A.S.T.A. 1972, p. 21). Such resolutions are in keeping with the Trustees' policy of seeking "local and lay control of education" and "a diversified program of education to meet the needs of all pupils" (p. 19).

Reactions to decentralization of curricular control. In spite of both legal and organizational support for decentralized curriculum decision-making, there is evidence to suggest that school boards, teachers and others at the local level are either resisting or finding difficult the making of curricular decisions. Possibly the clearest evidence that decentralized curricular control is proving difficult to handle is offered by statistics regarding applications for Ministerial Approval of new, locally-initiated courses of study. During the period of 1970 to

1973, only ten such applications were submitted by school boards.[4] Many more instances of local selection of learning resources have been reported to the Minister but the development of full-fledged courses of study at the local level has not yet become a common activity (Minutes of the Secondary Curriculum Board, Fall, 1973).

If the decentralization of curricular control is not producing activity at the school district level, it may be because of the difficulties that teachers and students face when they engage in curriculum decision-making. Meetings between the writer and teachers at all grade levels of Edmonton Public and Edmonton Catholic schools, held in February and March of 1974, revealed that decentralized decision-making is placing a great deal of strain on teachers. Two parts of the total school program which allow for the greatest decentralization of planning are being criticized. The new social studies and the Junior High School Group B Options are reported as increasing the workload of teachers and leading to reduced job satisfaction.

A majority of teachers interviewed feel that they and their students are being frustrated by too little professional help from colleagues at the

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[4] There have actually been about thirty applications for approval to use locally-developed curricula. However, about twenty applications have been from locals seeking approval to use a course developed by another school district. For example, the Religious Studies Program developed by the Edmonton Catholic School System is being used in many parts of Alberta. It is also worth noting that the limited number of courses submitted for approval may represent only some of those actually developed and used at the local level. "Bootleg" courses are probably more common than anyone cares to admit.

school, district, and provincial levels; by too limited access to resources such as time and learning materials; and by lack of understanding and support from parents and other community members. Of particular significance to the present study is the further complaint that teachers are trained as teachers, not as curriculum developers; they are frustrated because they do not understand the new role they are being asked to fill. In view of these perceived constraints, some teachers regard the so-called autonomy implied by decentralization to be more a myth than a reality (Ledgerwood, 1974a).

Mixed reactions to the provision of local curricular autonomy in Alberta are further attested to by research studies. As early as 1964, MacKay reported that Alberta teachers of Grades I-IX actually wanted more, not less, structuring of organizational characteristics. However, within the more bureaucratic structure which they desired, teachers wanted an opportunity to develop and demonstrate professional competence; in particular, they wanted to share in organizational planning. A liberal interpretation of MacKay's findings leads to the conclusion that teachers want structure but they also want a hand in determining what that structure should be.

This conclusion is consistent with the findings of a study of Alberta elementary and secondary teachers completed by Simpkins (1968) who studied twelve decision tasks and three levels at which these decisions could be made. Teachers were asked to indicate the level at which they perceived each decision was actually made and the level at which they would prefer it to be made. Among many interesting findings, Simpkins reported that

Alberta teachers prefer the basic outline of a curriculum to be determined by "higher official authority" rather than by individual teachers or by the work group. But, once the basic outline is provided for them, teachers want management of the instructional program to be dominated less by higher authority and more by individual teachers and the work group.

Results of the 1964 and 1968 studies can be compared with more recent studies completed since passage of The School Act of 1970 and the provision of curricular flexibility through Group B Options, Special Project Credits, the new social studies and other subjects.

Crowther (1972), in studying implementation of the new social studies at the elementary level, found that, in comparison to the previous provincial course of study, the new social studies is perceived by teachers as relatively advantageous to students but disadvantageous to teachers, "chiefly in terms of time and work necessary to prepare lessons and units, of evaluating students, and of locating suitable materials and resources" (p. 163). Crowther concluded his study by recommending that the Department of Education develop and test unit plans for distribution to teachers; describe and demonstrate teaching/learning and evaluation strategies for the new social studies; and either provide learning resources or show teachers how to procure resources for themselves (p. 170). This call for "teacher-proof" curricula might be taken to mean that teachers are not yet ready to welcome the decentralization of curriculum decision-making or that necessary conditions and resources are not being provided.

Yet, twenty-one Alberta teachers studied by Jeffares (1973) reported that they are coping successfully with the flexibility offered by the new elementary social studies curriculum introduced to the province's schools by the Department of Education in 1971. Only one of the twenty-one teachers felt that the new social studies curriculum places "too great" a responsibility on the teacher; twelve found the responsibility to be "considerable but challenging," while eight found the responsibility required by the new curriculum to be "no greater than [for] any other curriculum" (p. 113). Teachers who participated in Jeffares' study assigned the following rank order to six factors which influence their curriculum decision-making:

1. The nature of available learning resources;
2. The nature of the written curriculum prepared by the central authority;
3. Characteristics of the learner;
4. Characteristics of the teacher;
5. Attractiveness of potential instructional procedures; and
6. Expectations regarding evaluation.

The ranked significance of the externally-prepared written curriculum (in this case, the Elementary Social Studies Handbook distributed by the Department of Education) suggests the possibility that guidance from the central authority is important. But the presence of five other strong influences, all of a local nature, implies that "the classroom teacher in Alberta is accepting professional responsibility for curriculum decision-making . . . at the classroom level" (Jeffares, 1973, p. 8).

In summary, then, the passage of the School Act of 1970 highlighted a major change in the pattern of curricular decision-making in Alberta. Sections 12 and 13 of the Act opened new possibilities for decentralized curricular planning by permitting local personnel and agencies to make curricular decisions that were once reserved for the Department of Education. The opportunity for wider involvement of local decision-makers is included in the new Act for the express purpose of encouraging diversity in the curricula offered by Alberta schools (interview with B.L. Stringham, Chairman of the Committee for Re-writing of The School Act). The provision of this opportunity is an acknowledgement that there is no single answer to today's educational problems and that no one agency such as the Department of Education can be expected to generate the variety of curricular alternatives needed in order to accommodate the diverse educational needs of Alberta's students.

But, teachers and others who have asked for and gained a degree of curricular autonomy have greeted this shift with mixed feelings. For some persons at the local level, the new Act simply legitimizes curriculum decisions which they have been making on their own for some time; sections 12 and 13 have placed others in a decision-making role with which they are neither willing nor able to cope.

Conference on Curriculum Decision-Making in Alberta. The fact that decentralized curricular autonomy is regarded with mixed feelings prompted, in March of 1974, the convening of a conference on Curriculum Decision-Making in Alberta (C.D.M.A.). The conference was jointly sponsored by the Department of Education, the Alberta Teachers' Association and

Alberta School Trustees' Association, and was attended by 165 teachers, administrators, parents, students, trustees, and university personnel. The conference had two objectives:

1. To provide an opportunity for participants to learn more about the nature of curriculum decision-making;
2. To produce recommendations concerning who in Alberta should make what curriculum decisions and how they should make them.

What was possibly the key recommendation of the C.D.M.A. conference reads as follows:

> It is recommended that structures be established which will ensure input into the curriculum development process from all levels of involvement ----- Department of Education, local school systems, teachers, parents, learners. (Ledgerwood, 1974b, p. 211)

In response to this recommendation, plans are now being made to establish a variety of structures through which more Albertans will have the opportunity to participate in curriculum decision-making. As is obvious from evidence cited above, not all teachers want to become curriculum decision-makers; it seems safe to assume that many parents and learners will also shun this role. Nonetheless, Alberta is well into an era when more and more teachers, parents and learners need to be critically conscious of the diverse roles they can play in the complex task of curriculum building. The present study tries to facilitate critical consciousness by identifying the variables and characteristics which comprise different styles of curriculum decision-making and by conceptualizing ideal styles against which curriculum committees can compare their own approaches.

Overview of the Report

Chapter I

The current chapter stated that the present study represents an attempt to conceptualize three "ideal-type" styles of curriculum decision-making in small groups. A style of curriculum decision-making was defined as a self-consistent array of characteristics which distinguishes a group of persons engaged in choosing the intended ends and intended means of teaching and learning.

It was suggested that the problem attended to by the study, the need for conceptual tools with which to describe and analyze curriculum committees, is particularly significant in Alberta today because, with increasing decentralization of curricular authority, more and more people need to be critically conscious of the many styles of curriculum decision-making that are available for their use.

Chapter II

Alberta is not the only jurisdiction in which various styles of curriculum decision-making are possible. Chapter II identifies alternative approaches to curriculum decision-making used in Canada, the United States and Britain. It is shown, though, that writers who describe alternative approaches have chosen not to categorize the variables on which one approach can be distinguished from another. Three categories are suggested and literature relating to each category is reviewed. This literature constitutes one important source of data for the present study.

Chapter III

Chapter III outlines the methods and techniques employed in this study. The simultaneous use of both theoretical and empirical data is described. The writer's initial attempts to conceptualize alternative approaches to curriculum decision-making are reported and criticisms of these attempts are noted.

Chapter IV

The major source of empirical data, a case study of a curriculum committee at work, is described and analyzed in Chapter IV. It is emphasized that the case study was undertaken as a means of strengthening the conceptual tools which this study is attempting to produce.

Chapter V

Chapter V presents a modified conceptualization of three styles of curriculum decision-making. The modified schema incorporates changes that obviate the criticisms noted in Chapter III. Finally, the study concludes with some hypotheses which should be subjected to further research and an outline of techniques that might be employed in analyzing the curriculum decision-making of curriculum committees.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The "search image" which guided the writer throughout this study was the notion of a grid similar to those that appear in Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3. The left-hand column of the grid contains the variables on which different styles of curriculum decision-making can be distinguished. Characteristics which each variable might display are placed in the remaining columns. The characteristics shown in any given column share a common ethos that is succinctly summarized by a label appearing at the top of the column. Each column names and describes a particular style of curriculum decision-making.

Variables and characteristics to comprise the grid were drawn from the theoretical literature and from an empirical case study. It is the purpose of this chapter to review the theoretical literature which served as a major source of the concepts used in explicating alternative styles of curriculum decision-making.

PART A - ATTEMPTS TO DISTINGUISH ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING

Chapter II begins with a review of the works of Jack Blaney, R.A. Becher, and James B. Macdonald, three writers who have identified different approaches to curriculum decision-making. The works are presented in summary form, followed by an identification of certain key

issues and a discussion related to the issues.

The works of the three writers were chosen for two reasons. First, they are concerned with ways of making curriculum decisions, whereas much of the literature treats the nature of the curriculum, per se, while ignoring the nature of curriculum decision-making. Second, Blaney, Becher and Macdonald identify more than one perspective on curriculum decision-making, while most writers describe or prescribe only one approach.

Blaney's Modes of Curriculum Formulation

The Importance of Curricular Authority

Jack Blaney (1974) distinguished three modes of curriculum formulation according to the locus of curriculum decision-making authority. He suggested that both the processes of decision-making and characteristics of the teaching/learning situation differ, depending upon the curricular authority pattern.

Blaney described three patterns (Table 2.1). First, he outlined the institutional mode of curriculum development and claimed that this mode is the common one in public schools. In the institutional mode, persons outside the classroom are likely to hold major responsibility for pre-determining the goals of instruction. Efficiency of instruction is a major criterion in matters such as the selection of methods and techniques, the assignment of roles to teachers and learners, and the choice of technologies.

Table 2.1
Three Modes of Curriculum Formulation as Conceived by Jack Blaney (1974)

Program Variables	*Institutional Mode*	*Shared-Membership Mode*	*Individual Mode*
Authority	Largely external to learners; assumed and exercised by the institutions.	Granted to and exercised co-operatively by learners and teacher(s).	Granted to and exercised by the individual.
Objectives	Explicated prior to the instructional situation; provide the basis for planning and evaluation. May be revised by teacher. Consonant with controlling agency aims.	May never be explicit; often evolved during learning situation and have to be inferred from group activities. When explicit, more often refer to desired process than outcomes.	May never be explicit but usually can be inferred from individual activity. May take the form of a problem or project.
Methods and Techniques	Science-based and variable; chosen in terms of assumed or demonstrated effectiveness in achieving objectivs.	Group-centered and process-oriented. Variable and not overtly systematic.	Individual centered. Variable, and not overtly systematic.
Role of Professional Teacher	Instructional planner and/or manager; diagnostician, motivator, and evaluator. Specialists may assume some instructional tasks.	As jointly determined by group members; generally as a resource person/facilitator-member.	Learner assumes most teacher tasks, though may consult specialists as required. Profesional useful as model, supporter, and consultant.
Role of Learner	Dependent role regarding objectives and evaluation. To achieve prescribed objectives.	Interdependent. As a member who helps select ends, means, and evaluation procedures. To maintain integrity of group.	Independent. Assumes all ends and means decisions. Responsible for own learning.
Evaluation	Generally criterion-referenced. To assess effectiveness of instruction and importance of goals. To improve program. To diagnose learning difficulties.	To determine progress toward group goals and how well group functions. Generally semi-formal, though often wholly subjective.	Self-referenced. To assess results of persistence. Generally informal; often wholly subjective. May be synonymous with solution of a personal problem or task.
Technology	Use of "hard" and "soft" instructional technology in planning and actual instruction.	Mainly application of group process theory; as determined by group.	May be selected or constructed by individual for own needs.
Emphasized Conditions for Learning	Clear objectives and student knowledge of these; relevant practice; feed-back; motivation; effective organization of learning opportunities.	Positive and accepting group "climate." Full membership of learners. Access to resources.	Freedom to explore and take risks. Access to resources, consultants, and human models.

Blaney's second mode, the shared-membership mode, brings teacher(s) and student(s) together in a learning situation where educational goals "evolve". Group maintenance is accepted as an implicit, initial goal and influences the interactions of teachers and students with the learning environment. Adult education activities often rely on this mode.

In the third, or individual, mode of curriculum formulation, "the learner is the authority on ends, means, and effectiveness of his learning" (p. 17). The teacher (if there is one) is a model, supporter, and consultant to students who are assumed to be instinctively curious, persistent, and capable of independent learning. The individual mode tends not to be supported by curriculum scholars.

Nonetheless, Blaney claimed that each mode, including the individual mode, has something to recommend it:

> Though many debates on developing instructional programs would suggest that some particular approach . . . is inherently superior to others, this is not the case. There is no single approach to instruction which satisfies everyone's point of view . . . . There is no universal mode. (p. 19)

Becher's Styles of Curriculum Development

Becher's First-Stage Model

In September, 1971, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, (O.E.C.D.) in cooperation with the National Science Foundation, sponsored an invitational conference in Monticello, Illinois, on the topic, "Styles of Curriculum Development." The thirty-nine participants from Canada, the U.S.A., England and most nations in continental

Europe sought to identify styles of curriculum development which would reconcile the goals of efficiency and humanity. It was recognized that "the very notion that the curriculum must be developed in a systematic manner lends itself to technocracy" (Maclure, 1972, p. 1), so, in an attempt to touch also upon more humanistic concerns, participants chose to discuss "styles" rather than "models" (above, p. 6).

One of the papers at the O.E.C.D. conference was presented by R.A. Becher of the Nuffield Foundation in England. Becher conceptualized three styles of curriculum development. The three styles are shown in Table 2.2 and are labelled by Becher as simply Cluster I, Cluster II, and Cluster III. Becher was reluctant to apply more definitive labels to each cluster but acknowledged that Cluster I might be thought of as "Instrumental"; Cluster II as "Interactive"; and Cluster III as "Individualistic." With similar reluctance, Becher named "Teacher Role" as the key identifying feature of each cluster (1971, p. 1).

Becher's Second-Stage Model

The modified matrix shown in Table 2.3 was prepared by Becher in response to the discussion which followed the presentation of his paper at the Illinois conference. In the second-stage model more attention was devoted to "the underlying philosophical postulates which, in the rough-and-ready press of affairs are liable to be obscured or taken for granted" (Maclure, 1972, p. 28). The increased attention to philosophical postulates is evident in the choice of the variables "View of Humanity" and "View of External Reality."

Table 2.2

A First-Stage Model of Three Styles of Curriculum Development as Conceived by Becher (1971)

	Characteristic emphasis under:	Cluster I	Cluster II	Cluster III
Row 1	Innovation model	Research, development and diffusion	Social interaction	Problem-solving
Row 2	Academic derivation	Behavioural psychology (learning theory)	Sociology (organisation theory)	Philosophy (Deweyism/ existentialism)
Row 3	Implicit values	Competition	Cooperation	Self-development
Row 4	Orientation and relevance	Manpower-oriented/ utilitarian	Society-oriented/social	Individually-oriented/personal
Row 5	Taxonomic domain	Cognitive	Affective	Evaluative/ creative
Row 6	Teaching technique	Discovery methods/ inductive-heuristic	Group projects/discussion	Self-instructional/ practical tasks
Row 7	Teacher role	Dominating	Managing	Assisting
Row 8	Student assessment system	Conventional, but process-oriented	Continuous assessment	Self-checking
Row 9	Form of work organisation	Conventional class groups	Varying-sized groups	"Cafeteria" study/ practical workshops
Row 10	Institutional typology	Meritocratic	Comprehensive	De-institutionalised
Row 11	Subject-matter	"Linear" disciplines (maths, science, languages)	"Non-linear" subjects (humanities, social studies)	Cross-disciplinary/ wide-ranging options (arts-science mix, practical & creative skills)
Row 12	Mode of materials	Highly-structured	Loosely-structured	Modular-based/ non-structured
Row 13	Materials assessment systems/ criteria	Objective testing/ system engineered	Subjective expert appraisal local adaptability	Consumer evaluation/ success in take-up
Row 14	Terms of dissemination	Teacher handbooks, student workbooks, media back-up	Multi-media student packages, teacher guides	Complex resource banks, retrieval systems
Row 15	Means of implementation / principal clients	Rational persuasion and demonstration/ institutional authorities	Changes in staff attitudes/ teachers	Direct response to learner needs/ students

Table 2.3

A Second Stage Model of Three Styles of Curriculum Development as Conceived by Becher (1971)

	Cluster I	Cluster II	Cluster III
View of knowledge	PACKAGES (subject disciplines)	PROBLEMS (interdisciplinary enquiry)	PERSONAL EXPLORATION (eclectic searches)
Categories of goals most emphasised	JOB/CAREER	SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT	PERSONAL HAPPINESS
Means adopted	HIGHLY STRUCTURED MATERIALS	LOOSELY-STRUCTURED MATERIALS (but researched)	UNSTRUCTURED (non-existent?) MATERIALS
Teachers' classroom roles	DOMINATING	MANAGING	ASSISTING
Dissemination strategies	TEACHERS AS PASSIVE (RATIONAL) RECIPIENTS	TEACHERS AS REPRESENTATIVE (token?) PARTICIPANTS	TEACHERS AS (PARTIAL?) DEVELOPERS
Evaluation techniques	ATTAINMENT OF PRE-SPECIFIED GOALS	ECOLOGICAL (case-history) STUDIES	EXTENT OF CLIENT TAKE-UP
View of humanity	PEOPLE AS THINGS (manipulable)	PEOPLE AS SOCIAL ANIMALS (interactive)	PEOPLE AS INDIVIDUALS (idiosyncratic)
View of external reality	TERRA FIRMA (the real world) / Newton?	SANDBANKS (the changing world) / Einstein?	TERRA INCOGNITA (the unknowable, therefore) / Berkeley?

Macdonald's Models of Values Orientations in Curriculum

James B. Macdonald, a University of North Carolina professor, sought to explain differences in curriculum design by the fact that people are committed to different values. Macdonald acknowledged the influence of two levels of values in curriculum and instruction. The more superficial values, which Macdonald called "rational values", are manifested through explicit preferences for one alternative over another, as for example, when the disciplines rather than social problems are preferred as a source of curricular content. Macdonald's term "rational values" might be equated with "educational platform" as the latter term is defined in Chapter 1 of the present study.

Macdonald labelled a second, more basic level of values "structural perspectives" or "perceptual structures", terms which can be equated with this study's notion of basic paradigm. Perceptual structures operate at so deep a level that their influence is often unrecognized. Effective communication is often not possible because people's perceptual structures are different.

To account for differences in perceptual structures, Macdonald turned to the writings of Jurgen Habermas (1971), a contemporary German philosopher of science who suggested that scientists' search for knowledge is influenced by one of three human interests: a technical cognitive interest in control; a practical cognitive interest in consensus; a

critical cognitive interest in emancipation.[5]

Human Interests in Curriculum

Just as Habermas saw a definite relationship between human interest and knowledge, Macdonald saw human interest as "the basic phenomenon which . . . precedes and channels the activity of curriculum thinking" (p. 5) at both the theory level and the design level. According to Macdonald, various curriculum theorists demonstrate cognitive interests[6] that coincide with the scientific traditions identified by Habermas. For example, Herrick appears to have had a technical cognitive interest in control; Schwab is apparently motivated by a practical cognitive interest in consensus; Illich can be characterized by his critical interest in emancipation of the individual.

At the level of curriculum design, Macdonald claimed that discipline-centred curricula reflect a technical cognitive interest in control; curricula built around social problems suggest a practical cognitive interest in consensus; and child-centred curricula derive from a critical cognitive interest in emancipation.

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[5] Habermas' ideas are summarized in Part B of Chapter II, below.

[6] The qualifier "cognitive" may be misleading. As indicated by the title of his paper, Macdonald is concerned with "Knowledge and Human Interests." But, true to his earlier statement that "education is first and foremost a moral enterprise" (1968, p. 38), Macdonald is concerned with "knowledge that is more than cognitive in its content" (1972, p. 2).

Curriculum Development in Relation to Interests

Macdonald related differing perceptual structures to what he called models of curriculum development. Nomological thinkers, with their technical cognitive interest in control, favour the "Linear-Expert Model" that is exemplified by the national curriculum projects in which Research, Development, Dissemination, and Adoption (R.D.D.A.) are the major processes.[7] "The whole [curriculum development] process is controlled and monitored with specific goals in mind, and it is the experts who make the initial and final decision about the validity of the content and process" (Macdonald, 1972, p. 8).

A practical cognitive interest in consensus, characteristic of hermeneutic thinkers, gives rise to what Macdonald calls the "Circular Consensus Model." This is a mutualistic approach in which communication is used in order to ensure consensus on curricular ends and means. The community school is cited as an instance of this kind of curriculum development.

Macdonald's third model of curriculum development, the "Dialogical Model", reflects a critical cognitive interest in emancipation. Under this model, each student develops his own curriculum through dialogue with others, especially the teacher. Curricular decisions are verified by each student through a process of self-reflection. Use of the dialogical model is reported in the writings of Paulo Freire, especially in

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[7] The R.D.D.A. approach is discussed in Chapter III, below.

Education for Critical Consciousness (1973).

A Tabular Summary of Macdonald's Models

This writer prepared a tabular summary of Macdonald's 1972 paper, "Curriculum and Human Interests". The summary is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4

Macdonald's Scheme for Relating Human Interests to Curricula and to Models of Curriculum Development (1972)

Variables	Characteristics		
	Cluster I	Cluster II	Cluster III
Curriculum Development Model	Linear-Expert	Circular-consensus	Dialogical
Nature of the curriculum	Discipline-centred	Problem-centred	Child-centred
Human Interest	Control	Consensus	Emancipation

Table 2.4 illustrates the variables which Macdonald employed and the way in which he clustered characteristics of the variables. With the help of Table 2.4, Macdonald's work can be compared with that of Blaney and Becher on a number of questions.

An Analysis of Blaney's, Becher's and Macdonald's Schemas

A comparative study of Blaney's, Becher's and Macdonald's schemas revealed a number of questions which required further examination:

1. During the identification of styles of curriculum decision-making, do the three authors categorize the variables used in distinguishing between and among styles of curriculum decision-making? If so, what are the important categories into which variables are placed?
2. When characteristics of the many variables are clustered to form a particular style of curriculum decision-making, are the characteristics in each cluster regarded as logically consistent with one another?
3. Are different styles of curriculum decision-making regarded as finite and mutually exclusive?
4. Are styles of curriculum decision-making described as "ideal types" or as instances of "empirical reality"?

Categories of Variables

Blaney (1974) did not categorize variables, except that he isolated "the locus of curriculum decision-making authority [as] the critical element that differentiates diverse and often competing recommendations for curriculum development" (p. 13). Similarly, Becher (1971) did not categorize variables in either of his models. Though Macdonald (1972) used only three variables, he implied the notion of categories by suggest-

ing that human interest is basic to the nature of curriculum and to models of curriculum development and, thus, stands as categorically more important than the other two variables.

If one accepts the categories implied by Macdonald, it is possible to analyse further the variables identified by Blaney and Becher. Blaney did not include any variables that coincide with something so basic as human interests. Most of the variables identified by Blaney deal with the nature of curriculum and instruction, per se, although two variables, "[locus of] authority" and "[selection of] objectives", are descriptive of the curriculum development process.

Blaney's first-stage model contained one of fifteen variables that is possibly as basic as human interest, namely, "Implicit Values". However, in his second-stage model, two of the eight variables are basic: "View of Humanity" and "View of External Reality." The remainder of the variables in both schemas described either the curriculum or the curriculum development (and dissemination) process.

Logical Consistency

Blaney claimed that the characteristics within each mode share some fundamental similarity, thereby implying a form of logical consistency among the characteristics of each particular mode. Becher, on the other hand, did not credit his clusters with having an inherent consistency that is irrefutable: " . . . the actual designation of some items, or their positioning in one particular column in preference to the other two may be open to question" (1971, p. 2). Macdonald implied that the

characteristics which are summarized in Table 2.4 exhibit a logical consistency because all the characteristics in a given cluster can be traced to a human interest in either control, consensus, or emancipation.

Mutual Exclusiveness

In spite of the claimed consistency of his modes, Blaney does not regard them as mutually exclusive. "While the three modes described have been cast as ideal types, combinations and adaptations of the three basic patterns can be identified" (1974, p. 19). With similar caution, Becher disclaimed any intention to isolate mutually exclusive styles of curriculum decision-making. He acknowledged that a given curriculum project might exhibit characteristics of all three styles, though "the project could likely be said to belong to one family or cluster, rather than to the other two" (1971, p. 1).

Because of their logical consistency, the characteristics in each of Macdonald's clusters must be regarded as mutually exclusive. It would not make sense, for example, to place "dialogical decision-making" in the same cluster with "human interest in control". The characteristics shown in Table 2.4 cannot be mixed and matched.

Ideal Types

Blaney regarded his modes as ideal types that can stand as contructs against which to compare reality. Becher's modes were derived from empirical (albeit impressionistic) observations, and were intended to help curriculum workers as they engage in description, analysis, theory building, appraisal and chronicling. Yet, despite their empirical

origins and purposes, Becher's styles of curriculum development do have the qualities of ideal types. Similarly, Macdonald's clusters possess the "logical correctness" and "logical consistency" which Weber (1949, p. 2) designates as the necessary attributes of an ideal type.

The Value of Attempts to Distinguish Alternative Approaches to Curriculum Decision-Making

Recognizing the Need for Demonopolarization

Works such as those produced by Blaney, Becher and Macdonald are of major significance to the field of curriculum and instruction in that they help to bring to curriculum decision-makers a conscious realization of the different perspectives from which they can approach their tasks. By so doing, such works serve to reduce the limiting effects of what Maruyama (1973) has called "monopolarization":

> Persons tend to develop a dependency on one authority, one theory, one truth, etc. This is called monopolarization. . . . Monopolarized persons tend to be trapped in one way of thinking, believing that theirs is the universal way of thinking.(p. 20)

Efforts to reduce monopolarized thinking were supported by Huebner (1965). He stated:

> The educator must free himself from his self-confining schemas, in order that he may listen anew to the world pounding against his intellectual barriers. The present methodologies which govern curricular thought must eventually give way. (p. 26)

Huebner contended that the educator is trapped in his self-confining schemas by "a language system which determines his questions as well as

his answers" (p. 12). The language system perpetuates myths that Huebner identified as being dangerous to education. One such myth is the notion that learning (and not the experiencing of life) should be the main activity of the school. A second myth holds that all education must have pre-determined goals.

According to Huebner, both myths are deeply-rooted in the rationale put forward by Tyler (1950). In theory at least, curriculum workers have spent twenty-five years formulating objectives, selecting learning experiences, organizing learning experiences, and evaluating learning experiences according to criteria established by the objectives. These processes, which Huebner labelled as "tyrannical," are undertaken in a linear, sequential fashion. They are modelled after an economic rationality in which efficiency is a prime value. Although Huebner recognized economic rationality and its related technical values as one "valid and necessary mode of thought in curriculum," he favoured a stronger role for other values and systems of rationality (pp. 14ff.).

Blaney, Becher and Macdonald recognized that a linear, sequential, hierarchical approach to curriculum decision-making, such as that proposed by Tyler and criticized by Huebner, is only one of many possible approaches. They recognized the existence of other, possibly equally-useful approaches whose efficacy needs to be considered by demonopolarized workers in the field of curriculum.

Recognizing the Influence of Paradigms

Blaney, Becher and Macdonald contributed to the cause of demonopo-

larization by describing different approaches to the curriculum. Macdonald and, to a lesser extent, Becher made a still further contribution by suggesting the need to consider the differing assumptions which underlie each approach. By so doing, they were answering Schwab's (1972) plea for the field of curriculum to move beyond its moribund state by discovering "new principles which will generate a new view of the character and variety of its problems" (p. 1).

In this call for new principles, Schwab was suggesting the need to modify what in 1960 he called "the pre-existing and habitual screens which control our perceptions" (p. 5). He reminded curriculum decision-makers that their problem is strongly influenced by their paradigms and that their pre-existing and habitual screens not only influence the solutions they select but actually determine what is regarded as problematic. Schwab (like Kuhn) recognized that workers in the field of curriculum (like scientists) proceed most profitably when they are guided by a particular paradigm, or set of principles which can be subjected to reflexive and pragmatic tests. However, it was Schwab's opinion that the principles presently extant in the field of curriculum are failing these tests and that the field will remain moribund until it openly accepts the efficacy of alternative paradigms.

Recognizing Different Educational Platforms

Blaney, Becher and Macdonald each devoted attention to alternative perceptions of what the curriculum is and ought to be. Their works serve as responses to other curriculum theorists (e.g., Phenix, 1968,

pp. 10 ff.; Goodlad and Richter, 1965, p. 9 pp. 16ff., pp. 27ff., and pp. 63ff.) who have appealed for a clear identification of the variety of educational values which manifest themselves in curricular and instructional decisions and to UNESCO's Faure Report (1972) which urged a search for alternatives to "the outmoded dogmas and customs that weigh heavily on education" (p. 11).

Recognizing Different Curriculum Decision-Making Processes

All three of the authors (Blaney, Becher and Macdonald) established a direct connection between perceptions of what the curriculum is and ought to be, on the one hand, and the processes that are used in reaching curricular decisions, on the other. A study of their works suggests the need to consider alternative approaches to such important sub-processes as curriculum development, curriculum dissemination and curriculum evaluation.

Impact on the Present Study

Each of the authors whose work is reviewed above made a significant contribution to the conceptual task represented by the present study. Blaney and Becher provided examples of the format used in outlining the styles explicated in later chapters of this report. Further, they suggested important variables which were useful in this attempt to conceptualize styles of curriculum decision-making. Of equal importance, they demonstrated that alternative approaches to curriculum decision-making can be conceptualized.

Macdonald's work provided valuable insight into the three cate-

gories of variables which comprise and distinguish alternative styles of curriculum decision-making. The categories act as organizing centres for the three remaining sections of Chapter 2.

PART B - LITERATURE ON BASIC PARADIGMS

Paradigmatic Shifts

Blaney, Becher and Macdonald furthered the cause of demonopolarization by revealing alternative approaches to curricular decision-making. Becher noted that each approach was based upon certain "implicit values," a particular "view of humanity" or "view of external reality." Macdonald acknowledged that alternative curricula and curriculum development processes derived from different "human interests." Though neither author used the term "paradigm" in the works herein reported, they were referring to what this study has defined as a basic paradigm.

"Paradigm" has many definitions. For example, paradigm is sometimes used to refer to the full range of values, beliefs and techniques which characterize an individual or group. But a more limited definition has been adopted for purposes of the present study: a paradigm is comprised of the unquestioned, tacit assumptions about the universe, man and society that define the pre-existing and habitual screens through which people see their world (above, pp. 8 and 9). A paradigm is regarded here as the most basic set of values, beliefs and assumptions from which other values, beliefs and assumptions derive.

The purposes of Part B are to:

1. Highlight a paradigmatic shift which is currently under way;
2. Illustrate the paradigms which are involved in this shift; and
3. Select from the literature those variables which are most useful in distinguishing one paradigm from another.

The Study of Paradigms

Literature in the physical, biological, and social sciences suggests that people, both individually and corporately, have particular ways of viewing the world. Scientists, for example, employ certain "models from which spring particular coherent traditions of scientific research" (Kuhn, 1962, p. 11). Kuhn referred to these models as "paradigms." Willis Harman (1971) used the same term, "paradigm," to describe "the basic way of perceiving, thinking and doing, associated with a particular vision of reality. Paradigms are embodied in unquestioned, tacit understanding and are transmitted primarily through exemplars" (p. 2). Terms like "logic" and "epistemology" have also been used to describe what Kluckhohn (1949) referred to as the "cognitive orientation toward experience" (p. 356). For practical purposes, terms like "paradigm," "logic," "perspectives," "epistemology," "human interest," "structure of reasoning," "orientation"[8] or "frame of reference" can be regarded as synonymous with one another.

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[8] Jung (1965) considered that orientation (i.e., paradigm) was one of three variables in a definition of action; the other variables being motivation and decision (p. 60).

Reasonable commitment to a particular paradigm has a functional utility for both individuals and groups. As individuals, our paradigm gives each of us what Watzlawick (1967) has called our "way of being-in-the-world" (p. 226). It provides us with the image (i.e., the accumulated, organized knowledge that the organism has about itself and its world) which guides our actions (Miller, Galanter, and Pribram, 1960, p. 16). When numbers of people share a particular paradigm, they are able to communicate with each other more efficiently and more effectively. Kuhn (1972) calls our attention to the fact that science is at best haphazard until a paradigm is invented that tells scientists what to look for. Communities of scientists approach their field from the perspective of a common paradigm and, through communication, are able to reinforce and build upon each other's work.

While a paradigm provides some advantages to the individual and the group, it also presents certain disadvantages. Paradigmatic differences are often the source of communication difficulties. Equally serious are the constraints on progress that are imposed by an overly rigid commitment to a particular paradigm. The history of science is replete with instances of promising discoveries being ignored or rejected because they did not fit with the dominant paradigm of the scientific community. Copernicus' work was rejected by scientists who held dogmatically to a Ptolemaic paradigm. Only when the geocentric view of the universe had been replaced with the notion of a solar system did effective forms of scientific research become a part of astronomy.

That is not to say, however, that scientists should try to function without paradigms. Kuhn (1972) claimed that:

> . . . though a quasi-dogmatic commitment [to a particular paradigm] is, on the one hand, a source of resistance and controversy, it is also instrumental in making the sciences the most consistently revolutionary of all human activities . . . nature is vastly too complex to be explored even approximately at random.(pp. 83, 96)

Without a paradigm to guide research, science wanders aimlessly in a state of confusion so complete that discoveries cannot be distinguished from errors.

Paradigmatic Change

Commitment to paradigms frees scientists to engage themselves with tiny but important puzzles. But each scientific paradigm reaches a stage of diminishing utility. Thus, "the developmental pattern of mature science is usually from paradigm to paradigm" and debate over fundamentals occurs during "occasional periods of paradigm change" (Kuhn, 1972, p. 91).

While Kuhn stressed paradigmatic change in the sciences, numerous other writers have claimed that whole societies the world over are now experiencing a paradigmatic shift. Maruyama (1971) declared that we are now entering an era of "meta-transition" in which even the nature of change is changing. Harman (1971) put the case in equally strong terms:

> Let us first be explicit as regards the magnitude and pervasiveness of the transformation being posited. This is a thoroughgoing systemic change, to a degree comparable at least with such historic transitions as the Fall of Rome, the Reformation, and the Industrial Revolution, involving changes in basic cultural premises, the root image of man-in-society, fundamental value postulates, and all aspects of social roles and institutions. (p. 207)

Platt (1970) suggested that we are now witnessing:

> . . . the most dramatic and large scale restructurings . . . a thorough-going change in philosophy, personal attitudes, and ways of work and economic organization in every part of society. And the largest of all these changes, in its speed and scale and its long-range evolutionary implications, is the world transformation through which all human society is now passing. It is no distortion to speak of this world reorganization of all our patterns as a 'quantum jump' or as sudden collective change of awareness or flash of understanding for the human race. (p. 50)

The kinds of paradigmatic shifts referred to above do not occur smoothly. Freire (1973) explained:

> The dynamic of transition involve(s) the confusion of flux and reflux, advances and retreats. In the last analysis, retreats do not deter the transition. They do not constitute backward movement, although they can retard movement or distort it. The new themes [i.e., paradigms] which are repressed during the retreats will persist in their advances until such time as the validity of the old themes is exhausted and the new ones reach fulfillment. At that point, society will once more find itself in its normal rhythm of changes, awaiting a new moment of transition. (p. 9)

If this "moment of transition" is to be recognized and understood, it is necessary to become aware of those paradigms which are involved in the present shift. For these insights, we look to the writings of Magoroh Maruyama, Willis W. Harman, and Jurgen Habermas. These writers are chosen for review even though the first two use "paradigm" in a different way than does the present study and Habermas does not use the term at all. Both Maruyama and Harman conceive of a paradigm as including a whole constellation of beliefs, values and techniques. Included among the constellation are the more basic orientations that are included in the definition of paradigm used in the present study. Habermas uses the term "cognitive interest" in the same way that

"paradigm" is used here.

In spite of these semantic difficulties, Maruyama, Harman and Habermas are included here because they are acknowledged leaders in the field of paradigmatology; their writings illustrate the comprehensive, macroscopic purview of that field of study. But, more important, these authors have conceptualized alternative paradigms that are useful in this study's task of explicating styles of curriculum decision-making.

Magoroh Maruyama

Magoroh Maruyama (1973) is a scholar who has had contact with a wide and diverse range of people. His analysis of these contacts has led him to conclude that the world has now reached the point where its inhabitants must become de-monopolarized. That is to say, people must disabuse themselves of the notion that there is "one authority, one right theory, one truth, one god, etc." (p. 63). They must recognize, understand, and utilize ways of thinking other than those which are traditional to their own cultures.

According to Maruyama (1971), the need for multiple perspectives is intensified by present rates of change. Change/stability cycles are so rapid, so compressed, that they blur into a "duration of perpetually transforming patterns" (p. 3). We can understand these patterns only by adopting and applying new paradigms; we can maintain control over these changes only by designing structures which ensure "grass roots" participation in goal-setting, thereby subjecting technology to the

conscious will of individuals and society.

Three Paradigms

In an attempt to further the cause of de-monopolarization, Maruyama (1973, 1974) cited as representative of the many paradigms now extant three "pure" forms which he labelled "unidirectional causal," "mutual causal" and "random process".[9] These pure paradigms are not mutually exclusive. Though for heuristic purposes, Maruyama described each paradigm in isolation, the three paradigms can also be described in their various combinations. The three paradigms are shown in Table 2.5.

Unidirectional causal paradigm. The unidirectional causal paradigm originated with the ancient Greeks and is still dominant in the Western world. The popularly-conceived notion of "the scientific method" is based on a unidirectional paradigm in which there is a one-way flow of influence from cause to effect. Science has traditionally tried to identify causes by moving backwards from effects; it has tried to predict effects by projections based on the study of causes. From the perspective of the unidirectional causal paradigm, social organization is hierarchical, classificational, anthropocentric, quantitative, homogenistic, and competitive (Maruyama, 1973, pp. 21ff.).

Mutual causal paradigm. The mutual causal paradigm "is both supermodern and very ancient" (Maruyama, 1972, p. 2). It has been the dominant form of reasoning in many cultures for centuries. Eskimo, Danish, Navaho,

[9] Maruyama's "pure" paradigms have the qualities of ideal types stipulated by Weber (1949).

Table 2.5

Three "Pure" Paradigms as Outlined by Maruyama (1973)

	(1) Unidirectional Causal Paradigm	(2) Random Process Paradigm	(3) Mutual Causal Paradigm
Science:	traditional "cause" and "effect" model.	thermodynamics; Shannon's information theory.	post-Shannon information theory.
Information	past and future inferrable from present.	Information decays and gets lost. Blueprint must contain more information than finished product.	Information can be generated. Nonredundant complexity can be generated without pre-established blueprint.
Cosmology:	predetermined universe.	decaying universe.	self-generating and self-organising universe.
Social organization:	hierarchical	individualistic	non-hierarchical interactionist
Social policy:	homogenistic	decentralization	heterogenistic coordination
Ideology:	authoritarian	anarchistic	cooperative
Philosophy:	universalism	nominalism	network
Ethics:	competitive	isolationist	symbiotic
Esthetics:	unity by similarity and repetition	Haphazard	harmony of diversity
Religion:	monotheism	freedom of religion	polytheistic harmonism
Decision process:	dictatorship, majority rule or consensus	do your own thing	elimination of hardship on any single individual
Logic:	deductive, axiomatic	inductive, empirical	complementary

Table 2.5 (continued)

	(1) Unidirectional Causal Paradigm	(2) Random Process Paradigm	(3) Mutual Causal Paradigm
Perception:	categorical	atomistic	contextual
Knowledge:	believe in one truth. If people are informed, they will agree.	why bother to learn beyond one's own interest.	Polyocular: must learn different views and take them into consideration.
Methodology:	classificational, taxonomic	statistical	relational, contextual analysis, network analysis
Research hypothesis and research strategy:	Dissimilar results must have been caused by dissimilar conditions. Differences must be traced to conditions producing them.	There is probability distribution. Find out probability distribution.	Dissimilar results may come from similar conditions due to mutually amplifying network. Network analysis instead of tracing of the difference back to initial conditions in such cases.
Assessment:	"impact" analysis.	What does it do to me?	Look for feedback loops for self-cancellation or self-reinforcement.
Analysis:	pre-set categories used for all situations.	limited categories for his own use.	changeable categories depending on situation.
Community people viewed as:	ignorant, poorly informed, lacking expertise, limited in scope.	egocentric	most direct source of information, articulate in their own view, essential in determining relevance.
Planning:	by "experts." Either keep community people uninformed, or inform them in such a way that they will agree.	laisser-faire.	generated by community people.

Chinese and Japanese cultures manifest at least some forms of mutuality. According to philosophers of science, however, mutual causality has been developing in the broader western world since just prior to 1940 and is still to be regarded as an emerging form of logic.

An important concept in mutual causality is "feedback". Unlike uni-directional causality which assumes a one-way flow on influence, and unlike the random process paradigm which regards elements as independent of each other, the mutual causal paradigm recognizes the complementarity of influences. It regards components as interacting with each other through channels that are multi-directional.

Feedback can serve to counteract deviation or to amplify deviation. Deviation-counteracting mutual causal processes tend to maintain an equilibrium. For example, predators and prey maintain their own numbers in a balanced ratio. As a further example, some missiles have built-in servo-mechanisms which counteract deviations in order to maintain the course of the missile.

Deviation-amplifying mutual causal processes tend to increase diversity, complexity, and structure (e.g., in the origins of species). Differential forms developed because deviations which were initially minor were reinforced. The reinforcement (i.e., feedback) served to amplify the deviation, thereby tending to increase the heterogeneity of life forms. Deviation-amplifying mutual causality is also evident in the case of a city developing on what was once a homogeneous plain. Once a settler chooses a spot, then others arrive and, with this "initial kick", a city of diverse and complex structures eventually develops.

(Of course, the deviation represented by the initial settlement could be counteracted, the settlers could move on, and the plain could revert to its original homogeneous, equilibrated state.)

Thus, whereas unidirectional causal reasoning tends to increase structure and random process reasoning tends to reduce structure, mutual causal reasoning tends to at least maintain structure by counteracting deviations or possibly even to increase structure by amplifying deviations. Significantly, though, the structures that occur with mutual causal processes are "nonhierarchical, heterogenistic, symbiotic, harmonistic, contextual, relational, poly-ocular and process-oriented" (Maruyama, 1973, p. 41).

Random process paradigm. The random process paradigm is best explained by reference to Shannon's Information Theory (Maruyama, 1973, p. 12). Shannon recognized that we are actually informed by what is different, by the heterogeneous elements that stand out in contrast to the surround. Yet, a study of thermodynamics reveals that the elements of a system are most likely to arrange themselves homogeneously. For example, if blue and yellow coins are shaken in a box, they will assume a random arrangement; similarly, it is probable that the heat in an isolated room will distribute itself evenly. So, in trying to increase the information value of a message, communication specialists find it necessary to counteract homogeneity and to maximize heterogeneity.

Like communication specialists, random process thinkers try to reduce the homogeneity and maximize the heterogeneity of systems with which they are involved. In trying to diversify the social system,

random process thinkers have stressed the importance of independence assuming that "doing you own thing" will increase the heterogeneity of society. Maruyama (1973) has labelled this form of social organization as egocentric, isolationistic, atomistic, non-contextual, and capricious.

Willis W. Harman

Willis Harman (1971, 1972, 1974) is known to Albertans through ideas borrowed from him for inclusion in the Report of the Commission on Educational Planning (Worth, 1972).

Like Maruyama, Harman noted a shift in the dominant paradigm of Western society. Harman (1971) sees in progress a thoroughgoing systematic change that will be most effective when it achieves "metonia," the "fundamental transformation of mind" that signifies a shift in basic paradigm (p. 208). However, society is resistant to change. "The temptation is strong in us to ignore forecasts of unpleasant events" (Harman, 1972, p. 56). Instead of discontinuous change, people seem to favor "the gradualness of inevitability." They seem to assume that they can drift easily toward a future that is not significantly different from the past. Harman claimed kinship with Platt (1970) in believing that society may be on the verge of a "quantum jump," a spontaneous restructuring of hierarchies that could tip the balance in favor of a new paradigm.

Hierarchical restructuring will only come about through a paradigmatic shift involving primarily our thought processes, but affecting, also,

our economic, religious, and political insititutions. Harman (1974) expressed confidence that this metamorphosis is now in progress. "The increasingly obvious troubles of the industrialized world prepare the ground for the new knowledge paradigm to take root" (p. 20). Those who take comfort in the familiar may expect that the emergent paradigm will almost certainly include the old as a special case; one, in fact, will be complementary to the other:

> The typical commonsense-scientific view of reality will be considered to be a valid but partial view - a particular metaphor, so to speak - [within the new paradigm] (Harman, 1971, p. 214).

Three Futures for Society

Harman (1971) claimed that "all policy decisions are guided by some interpretation of the past, and some vision of the future - or of alternative futures" (p. 217). He urged decision-makers to know and understand the basic paradigm underlying their decisions. He outlined three possible futures: the garrison-state; the second-phase industrial-state; and the person-centred society. Each alternative is based on a particular paradigm.

The garrison-state.[10] Harman (1972, pp. 14-16) did not elaborate on the garrison-state other than to indicate the probability that it would come about as a reaction to the increasing dissidence and rebellious activity which accrue from extreme forms of individualism. Enforced

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10 Worth (1972) suggested that Albertans would not knowingly support, but must guard against, adoption of the garrison-state (p. 27).

control, rigid conformity, extreme homogeneity would be consistent with the garrison-state paradigm.

The second-phase industrial state. Harman (1971) claimed that the second-phase industrial society would represent a continuation of the present dominant paradigm. This paradigm is founded on the notion that man must seek control over nature. Technological advance and acquisitive materialism are dominant goals. The scientific method, division of labor, competitive and hierarchical social orders, authoritarian decision-making, and role conformity are considered to be natural and probably desirable.

The person-centred society. According to Harman (1971) the person-centred society would come about only as a discontinuous change. It would require that disparate forces within the society, each in its own way, press for a new order of reality. Change would then take the form of a "quantum jump," the "step function" referred to by cyberneticians. The new society would be characterized by three basic and essential elements. It would require:

1. A "new naturalism" which affirms that man is absolutely a part of nature, a universe that is always in the process of becoming;
2. A "new holism" in which no part can be defined or understood save in relation to the whole;
3. A "new immanentism" in which the whole is determined not from outside but from within (p. 212).

The primary assumption underlying the person-centred society is that man is transcendent; that is, he has the potential to comprehend the

innermost workings of his universe and to see unity in all things. Under the influence of this paradigm, science becomes a process of moral inquiry, social institutions become at once autonomous and interdependent, the study of economics becomes "earth management," and education becomes a continuous process of self-actualization.

Jurgen Habermas

Jurgen Habermas concerned himself mainly with ways of knowing. He contended that there are three traditions of science, each of which employs a particular method and is motivated by a particular cognitive interest. Though the methods employed by each tradition of science are of only indirect relevance to a student of basic paradigms (in the limited definition of the term adopted for this study), the cognitive interests which Habermas ascribed to the different methods are extremely relevant. Habermas (1971) referred to these cognitive interests as "framework", "frame of reference", "orientation", and "viewpoint from which we apprehend reality" - all synonyms for "paradigm".

Three Cognitive Interests

Technical cognitive interest in control.

> In the empirical-analytic sciences the frame of reference [i.e., paradigm] that prejudges the meaning of possible statements . . . is the cognitive interest in technical control over objectified processes.(Habermas, 1971, pp. 308, 309)

According to Habermas, the empirical-analytical sciences which, incidentally, trace their origins to early Greece, attempt to objectify

reality. They attempt to separate the knower from the known in hopes of "describing the universe theoretically in its lawlike order, just as it is" (p. 303). However, in spite of this intended objectivity, empiricists do not avoid "the admixture of subjectivity". By their attempt at technical objectivity and by their use of controlled experimentation, the nomological scientists reveal the main constituent of their paradigm: a technical cognitive interest in control.

Practical cognitive interest in consensus. A second tradition of science derives from the historical-hermeneutic sciences. These sciences deal not so much with the data of observation as with the interpretations of language. They concern themselves not with events but with meanings. According to Habermas (1971), the hermeneutic method allows an interpreter to "transpose himself into the horizon of the world or language from which a text derives its meaning" (p. 309). The interpreter becomes part of what is being interpreted; there is an intersubjective relationship between the knower and the known which creates a mutual need for self-understanding.

The methods employed by the hermeneutic scientist provide evidence that he is operating from a specific frame of reference, or paradigm. The hallmark of this paradigm is "a constitutive interest in the preservation and expansion of the intersubjectivity of possible action-orienting mutual understanding" (p. 310). The hermeneutician has a practical cognitive interest in consensus.

Critical cognitive interest in emancipation. A third tradition of science which Habermas (1971) identified is typified by psychoanalysis, philosophy, and other critically oriented sciences which rely on a process of reflection in the consciousness of those who are the subject of study. The basic orientation of the critical, reflective sciences is toward emancipation of the individual.

Basic Paradigm Variables

Maruyama, Harman and Habermas all suggest that a given paradigm has limited durability; no one paradigm holds exclusive sway either within a particular population or over a given time period. One can speak of a dominant paradigm of a population or of a period but not of an only paradigm.

These authors also agree that today's society is undergoing a paradigmatic shift. Unlike the people of the Dark Ages who, it is said, did not know it was dark, the people of today are (sometimes painfully) aware of the conflicts generated by this shift and are in many cases anxious at least to understand, if not to resolve, paradigmatic differences that arise in our society.

One can best understand paradigmatic differences by comparing paradigms on a selected list of common variables. As shown in Table 2.5, Maruyama (1973, pp. 8-9) listed twenty variables on which paradigms might be compared. However, the variables shown in Table 2.5 describe a whole

constellation of processes and assumptions, many of which are not pertinent to the more limited definition of basic paradigm that is employed in the present study.

Probably the most basic of the variables listed by Maruyama is "Cosmology". Cosmology, or "View of the Universe", is an important paradigm variable because one's view of the universe provides the basis for all other perceptions, including perceptions of man and society.

"View of man" is another important variable. Maruyama attended to this variable under the heading, "View of Community People" and Habermas dealt with alternative views of man when he discussed the human interests which underlie man's behavior.

A third important variable is "View of Society" a variable which Maruyama discussed under two headings: "Social Organization" and "Social Policy". Harman attended directly to this variable by outlining three possible futures for society.

Thus, it is suggested that "View of the Universe", "View of Man", and "View of Society" are three variables on which alternative paradigms might be distinguished. Additional paradigm variables could be listed. However, it is this writer's judgement that these three variables serve to define at least the major parameters of a given paradigm.

Value of the Literature on Basic Paradigms

The Raising of Consciousness

Maruyama, Harman, and Habermas facilitated a study of the basic

assumptions underlying curricular decisions by explicating alternative paradigms and by identifying the most basic variables on which different paradigms can be distinguished. The understanding of basic paradigms is particularly important to individuals who seek to know better themselves, their society, their universe - and the opportunities available during this time of paradigmatic change:

> Men play a crucial role in the fulfillment and in the superseding of the epochs. Whether or not men can perceive the epochal themes and above all, how they act upon the reality within which these themes are generated will largely determine their humanization or dehumanization, their affirmation as subjects or their reduction as objects. For only as men grasp the themes can they intervene in reality instead of remaining mere onlookers. (Freire, 1973, p. 5)

Through what they have revealed about paradigms, Maruyama, Harman and Habermas have helped curriculum workers to understand both the traditional and emerging "themes" of the twentieth century; by the raising of consciousness, they have opened opportunities for the intervention of which Freire speaks.

Impact on the Present Study

The paradigms described by Maruyama, supplemented by ideas from the writings of Harman and Habermas, provided the "ethos" (i.e., the perspective) of the three styles of curriculum decision-making that are explicated in this study. Further, the literature reviewed above suggested the paradigmatic variables which help to distinguish one style of curriculum decision-making from another. Educational platform variables, decision-making process variables, and the pertinent characteristics of each variable were derived largely from a review of the

literature reported in the remaining sections of Chapter II.

PART C - LITERATURE ON EDUCATIONAL PLATFORMS

Part C provides a review of selected literature dealing with educational platforms. The purpose of this section is to reveal alternative perceptions of what education is and ought to be, and to suggest important variables on which alternative educational platforms might be distinguished.

In Chapter I, "educational platform" was defined as the system of beliefs and values about education that a curriculum decision-maker brings to his task. Walker (1971) included conceptions, theories, and aims as necessary parts of any platform. Conceptions are "beliefs about what exists and about what is possible"; theories are "beliefs about what relations hold between existing entities"; aims are "beliefs about what is educationally desirable" (p. 56).

Over the past two centuries, a continuing and intense debate has revealed differing conceptions, theories and aims of education. The history of education is replete with debates among "traditionalists," "progressives," "disciplinarians," "humanists," and other advocates of one belief or another. Some alternative beliefs were illustrated earlier in this chapter when the works of Blaney, Becher, and Macdonald were reviewed. However, this earlier review dealt with authors who were as concerned with how curricular decisions are made as they were with the educational platforms of the decision-makers. In this section,

there is a more limited focus. The works to be reviewed in Part C are ones that concern themselves more directly with alternative beliefs and values about the curriculum, per se. The three works to be reviewed are by Eisner and Vallance (1974), Worth (1972) and Lamm (1969).

Eisner and Vallance: Conflicting Conceptions of Curriculum

In their book entitled, Conflicting Conceptions of Curriculum, Eisner and Vallance (1974) claimed that:

> Controversy in educational discourse most often reflects a basic conflict in priorities concerning the form and content of curriculum and the goals toward which schools should strive; the intensity of the conflict and the apparent difficulty in resolving it can most often be traced to a failure to recognize conflicting conceptions of curriculum. (pp. 1, 2)

In a step toward resolving this basic conflict, Eisner and Vallance identified alternative orientations to the content, goals, and organization of the curriculum. Eisner explains how he proceeded:

> I relied on fifteen or twenty years of reading in the field to give me kind of an intuitive grasp of the ways people perceive the curriculum. Originally, I had three categories. It was only when the National Society for the Study of Education asked me to do the book (Eisner and Vallance, 1974) that I expanded it to five categories. In fact, I could have added more. For example, there are schools that stress a religious conception of the curriculum. Their major purpose is to inculcate a belief system. But I didn't include that category because it is no longer one of the common conceptions.[11]

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[11] Private interview with Elliot Eisner by the writer, Banff, Alberta November 10, 1974.

The five conceptions of curriculum outlined by Eisner and Vallance represent different responses to the question: What can and should be taught to whom, when, and how? Obviously, this question is so pervasive that it subsumes many philosophical issues, many questions in the psychology of learning, concerns about administrative organization, and the like. Eisner and Vallance attended to certain of these questions in an explicit manner; others are implicit in the distinctions they drew among the five conceptions of curriculum that are summarized below.

Five Conceptions of the Curriculum

Curriculum as cognitive process. Underlying the cognitive process approach are assumptions about how children learn. The primary goal of curricula based on this approach is the development of cognitive abilities. Content, per se, is of little importance. Concept-formation skills, processing behaviors, and problem-solving abilities are maximized.

Curriculum as technology. Efficiency is highly valued by those who see the curriculum as a technical instrument for the achievement of prespecified ends. Educational technologists assume that learners are essentially static elements who can be controlled through regulation of inputs and careful monitoring of predictable outputs.

Curriculum for self-actualization. Supporters of the self-actualization movement assume that individuals are in a continuous state of becoming; they view "the function of the curriculum as providing personally satisfying consummatory experience for each individual learner" (p. 9). Boundaries between content and process, ends and means, education and life are transcended in an effort to provide an integrative, synthesizing

experience that is responsive to the individual's needs for growth and personal integrity (p. 10).

Curriculum for social reconstruction. Just as the self-actualization movement stresses the continuous growth of the individual, there is a conception of curriculum which stresses involvement with social issues. The goal of such involvement is to equip the individual with survival skills and/or to provide leadership for the reconstruction of society. This orientation reflects a strong concern for the future, though the relevance of present societal needs is also important. One of the basic assumptions underlying the reconstructive approach is that man is in control of his own destiny. Intervention in the process of social change is a legitimate activity of the school and should be provided for by the curriculum.

Curriculum based on academic rationalism. The last of the major orientations to curriculum identified by Eisner and Vallance is that of academic rationalism. Academic rationalists support the notion of teaching the disciplines. They assume that knowledge is cumulative and that it can be compartmentalized. Recent concern with the "knowledge explosion" has resulted in attempts to identify the structure of the disciplines. The emphasis on structure has led to a concern with the syntactical processes of each discipline as well as with the substantive concepts that have long been the object of focus.

Worth's Modes of Program Operation

In the report of the Commission on Educational Planning, Worth (1972, pp. 152ff.) outlined three modes of program operation.[12] Each mode represents an ideal type of educational platform. The three modes of program operation are shown in Table 2.6.

The essential difference among the three modes is the "locus of authority" (Worth, 1972, p. 153). The first mode is a form of corporate enterprise in which authority is external to the learner. The second mode is a cooperative enterprise where authority is shared by a group of learners. Finally, the third mode is an individual enterprise where authority is internal to the learners.

Lamm's Patterns of Instruction

Three different patterns of instruction were outlined by Lamm (1969). Each pattern is a different ideal type of educational platform. The three patterns are shown in Table 2.7.

A major distinction between and among the patterns is revealed by the status of the learner in each pattern. In the imitation pattern, the learner is assumed to be solely a member of a social group. If a moulding pattern is operative, the learner is regarded as a member of

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[12] It should be noted that the three modes outlined by Worth are essentially the same as Blaney's modes which were reviewed earlier in Chapter II.

Table 2.6

Three Modes of Program Operation as Presented in the Report of the Commission on Educational Planning (1972)

Platform Variable[13]	Modes		
	Institutional Mode	Membership Mode	Autonomous Mode
Learner	Dependent	Interdependent	Independent
Objectives	Predetermined	Jointly-Determined	Self-Determined
Content	Disciplines or Subjects	Problems or Themes	Interests or Concerns
Teacher	Director	Facilitator	Consultant
Methods	Teacher-Centred Product-Oriented	Group-Centred Process-Oriented	Individual-Centred Performance-Oriented
Evaluation	Formal, Norm-Referenced	Semi-informal Group-Referenced	Informal Self-Referenced

[13] In the original, the variables are labelled process variables, and refer to the teaching/learning process. The term platform is used here to avoid confusion with the variables used in the present study to refer to the process of curriculum decision-making. Two additional variables, "organizational model" and "perspective" appear in the original but are omitted from Table 2.6.

Table 2.7

Lamm's Criteria For Defining Patterns of Instruction (1969)

Dimensions for analysing theories of instructions	A. Imitation	B. Moulding	C. Educability
(I) Nature of Aims	extrinsic aims only	extrinsic aims control intrinsic ones	intrinsic aims control extrinsic ones
(II) Nature of Desired Achievement	ability to perform according to given models	ability to act according to given principles	ability to discover new principles and test them
(III) Status of the Learner	solely as a member of a social group	as a member of a heterogeneous group	as a unique individual
(IV) Status of the Contents	ritualistic--to be transferred in original form	manipulative--to be transferred in original meaning	instrumentalistic --as a means to develop pupil's powers
(V) Status of the Teachers	as a communal employee	as a cultural agent	as a professional
(VI) Social Functions of Teaching	a means of socialization	a means of acculturation	a means of individualization
(VII) Psychological interpretation of Learning	conditioning	concept and principle learning	problem solving and creative thought

a heterogenous group. In the educability pattern, the learner is credited with being a unique individual.

Educational Platform Variables

Eisner and Vallance (1974) regarded curricular goals, curriculum content, and curriculum organization as the most useful variables for distinguishing what the present study has labelled the "educational platform" of curriculum committees. They also attend to variables such as role of the learner and theory of learning. Worth (1972) and Lamm (1969) employed similar variables, and both extended the list to include variables pertaining to the role or status of teachers and learners. Worth added a further variable, evaluation, and Lamm gave attention to the psychological interpretation of learning.

The variables employed by Eisner and Vallance, Worth, and Lamm are similar to the variables found in much of the literature on curriculum and instruction. Some of the earliest American literature on curriculum appeared in the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (1926). The differing educational platforms of the authors of the yearbook showed themselves around such variables as the role of the child in learning, the role of societal goals, the value of a common curriculum, and the place of the subject disciplines in the curriculum (Walker, 1975, pp. 270ff.).

Thirty-five years later, Tyler (1950) proposed a curriculum rationale comprised of four elements: educational purposes, learning experiences,

organization of the curriculum, and evaluation. The elements of Tyler's rationale have earned recognition as the classical variables that must be included in any description of what teaching and learning are and ought to be. Taba (1962), Goodlad and Richter (1965) and a host of writers reported in Short and Marconnit (1968) propose variations on the Tyler theme.

Recent critics have suggested that the Tyler rationale is prescriptive (Walker, 1971a); that the Tyler variables imply a hierarchy, linearity and sequence that are not consistent with human behavior (Macdonald, 1972) and that Tylerian language conceals the probability "that learning is merely a postulated concept, not a reality; and that goals and purposes are not always needed for educational planning" (Huebner, 1965, p. 10).

These criticisms may have a good deal of validity. Searches are underway to discover replacement variables with which to describe the "varying perspectives through which all kinds of people can view [the curriculum]" (Greene, 1974, p. 69). But, until alternative descriptors are found, the two most useful variables with which to distinguish educational platforms are those which effectively summarize all the variables mentioned above, namely, "Ends" and "Means."

Aoki (1974a, pp.27, 28) suggested that ends and means are the major components of what he called the instructional program. It is the contention of the present writer that ends and means can also be conceived as the major variables with which to distinguish alternative educational platforms.

Value of the Literature on Educational Platforms

Eisner and Vallance (1974) concluded their article by noting that the categories in their schema

> simplify and organize a complex field and in that sense they can economize thought and function as a kind of mnemonic device that can be used to mine an extremely rich field in education. (p. 16)

The conceptions offered by Eisner and Vallance are, indeed, useful guides to the field of curriculum and instruction. An awareness of these conceptions can do much to heighten the critical consciousness of curriculum decision-makers.

The major limitation of the Eisner and Vallance contribution has to do with the variables used in describing the various conceptions of curriculum. The five conceptions are described according to a small selection of variables; only the most distinctive characteristics of each conception are discussed. This limitation restricted the utility for the present study of the Eisner and Vallance conceptions because, by concentrating on only the most distinctive characteristics of each conception, Eisner and Vallance provided insufficient data for comparing and contrasting one conception with another. There were no common criteria. For example, it was indicated that the reconstructionists hold certain assumptions about society; the reader was left to infer what assumptions may exist regarding the nature of knowledge. Attention was given to the assumptions about knowledge which are held by the academic rationalists; nothing was said about their view of society.

Eisner and Vallance did help the current study by stating that curriculum is the focal point of differing educational platforms and by identifying curricular goals, content and organization as significant variables to use in distinguishing the educational platforms of curriculum decision-makers.

The Worth and Lamm schemas were also useful. First, the modes and patterns which were presented exhibited a logical consistency with the paradigms, societal futures and human interests identified by Maruyama, Harman and Habermas, thereby facilitating the synthesis which is offered in Chapter V of this report. Second, many of the variables used by Worth and Lamm shared enough in common with each other and with those found in other literature in the field of curriculum and instruction to justify their use in the present attempt to explicate styles of curriculum decision-making.

PART D - LITERATURE ON DECISION-MAKING IN SMALL GROUPS

Perspectives on Group Decision-Making Processes

This study focusses on curriculum decision-making as it occurs in small groups. Consequently, it is necessary to review the literature on decision-making, as well as the literature on small groups.

Decision-Making

A fairly substantial body of literature dealing with different perspectives on decision-making is now emerging. In some of the earliest literature, Lindblom (1959) questioned the efficacy of the notion that decision-making is a rational process that parallels the problem-solving method of the sciences. He suggested, instead, that decision-making is more often a matter of "muddling through." Referring to the two approaches to decision-making as the rational-comprehensive and the successive-limited comparison, Lindblom compared them as shown in Table 2.8.

In a 1962 article, Lindblom and Hirschman labelled the second approach to decision-making as "disjointed incrementalism". The incremental approach to decision-making was mooted as the most viable mode for use in complex organizations, where progress occurs in a "series of seesaw advances" (p. 360).

Archibald (1970, pp. 78ff.) described a third mode of decision-making, the clinical approach. The approach is sometimes referred to as "organization development" or as the "human relations approach." The objective is to build a better organization by employing joint problem-solving procedures. Stress is placed on the internal accountability of decisions.

What mode of decision-making is commonly used in education? Elboin-Dror (1970) had no doubts. After analyzing the nature and pattern of educational decisions, she stated:

> Incremental decision-making seems to be a common pattern in most organizations, but in education it is dominant. (p. 247)

Schmidtlein, (1974) on the other hand, saw at least two modes of decision-making operating in education. The comprehensive/prescriptive

Table 2.8

Two Modes of Decision-Making as Conceptualized by Charles E. Lindblom (1959)

Rational-Comprehensive (Root)	Successive Limited Comparisons (Branch)
1a. Clarification of values or objectives distinct from and usually prerequisite to empirical analysis of alternative politics.	1b. Selection of value goals and empirical analysis of the needed action are not distinct from one another but are closely intertwined.
2a. Policy-formulation is therefore approached through means-end analysis: First the ends are isolated, then the means to achieve them are sought.	2b. Since means and ends are not distinct, means-end analysis is often inappropriate or limited.
3a. The test of a "good" policy is that it can be shown to be the most appropriate means to desired ends.	3b. The test of a "good" policy is typically that various analysts find themselves directly agreeing on a policy (without their agreeing that it is the most appropriate means to an agreed objective).
4a. Analysis is comprehensive; every important relevant factor is taken into account.	4b. Analysis is drastically limited: i) Important possible outcomes are neglected. ii) Important alternative potential policies are neglected. iii) Important affected values are neglected.
5a. Theory is often heavily relied upon.	5b. A succession of comparisons greatly reduces or eliminates reliance on theory.

mode derives theoretical support from the writings of Marx and Mannheim. It is typified by the planned economy and centralized control. It is favored by top level educational policy-makers and is consistent with the current accountability and Planned Program Budgeting movements in education. The incremental/remedial mode is more consistent with the "traditional values associated with education" (p. 11). The market system is the economic analogy to this model. Supporters of the incremental/remedial mode acknowledge that the data base and other resources needed for comprehensive decision-making are simply not available in education. The relationship between ends and means is so ill-defined that in many areas of decision-making, educators have no choice but to move incrementally. Thus, Schmidtlein maintained that:

> A conflict is underway in education over the legitimacy and effectiveness of two modes of decision-making . . . . In practice trade-offs have to be made between comprehensiveness (to discover externalities and system-wide effects) and disjointed actions (to permit prompt response to problems) (pp. 9 and 10).

Archibald (1970) took a similar eclectic view. With reference to the rational, incremental and clinical approaches, he proposed to decision-makers a synthesis in which approaches would not be superimposed on one another but rather a particular approach would "borrow" from other approaches those elements which it finds compatible.

Small Groups

Small groups have been a focus of attention for social scientists since the time of Plato and Aristotle. The study of small groups has alternated with, and tended to complement, studies of the individual

and the larger organization. Group-studies have constituted "the most marked research trend in the post-World War II social science revolution" (Golembiewski, 1962, p. 17), primarily because the small group lends itself to both natural and experimental study.

The literature on types of small groups has relied heavily on the pioneer efforts of Lewin, Lippitt and White in 1939-40. These early researchers claimed that types of groups can be characterized according to the style of leadership they experience. The "climate" or "atmosphere" of a group can be authoritarian, democratic, or laissez faire.

The authoritarian group. Hopkins (1964a) coupled the early Lewin, Lippitt and White findings with more recent refinements and listed ten characteristics of the ideal type authoritarian group:

1. The group is originated by some force outside the group itself;
2. The group is led by a status leader who is appointed by, and must retain the confidence of, an outside authority;
3. The wants or demands of the status leader are the focal point of the group's operation;
4. The group lacks unity because unity can never be put into a group from outside;
5. Group members are assumed to have an inadequate fund of knowledge, thereby having to rely on the status leader;
6. Communication within the group is directed from the status leader to each member;

7. Planning and decision-making are exercised by outside authorities operating through the status leader;
8. Group members are ranked according to the success with which they adapt to the expectations of the status leader;
9. The responsibility for success of the group rests with the status leader;
10. The status leader is rated by his superiors according to the success of the group. (pp. 56-58)

The democratic group. The democratic group is sometimes described as an organic group, since each group member is given the opportunity to grow as an individual in interaction with other members of the group. Hopkins (1964b) listed the following characteristics of the democratic group:

1. The group is autogenous in origin, the members coming together to resolve common needs;
2. Leadership emerges from within and continues so long as it functions to achieve group purposes through cooperative action;
3. Unity and functional organization are developed internally around the group's own purposes in relation to its own need;
4. All of the planning and all of the major and minor decisions are made by the group itself;
5. Large directional policy decisions which regulate the work of individuals or subgroups are made by the group as a whole;
6. Decisions as to policy or action are made by consensus, not by majority rule. Consensus means that every member recognizes

and assents to the mutual fitness of the judgment or action to achieve the purposes which are commonly accepted;

7. The work is carried on by individuals and small groups. The responsibility for such work is delegated by the group as a whole. The whole group holds subgroups accountable for the adequate performance of their duties. Individual initiative and creativeness in carrying on such activities are encouraged at all times;
8. The group as a whole sets the esprit de corps or climate of opinion or psychological atmosphere in which each individual or subgroup carries on its work. This is a creative [sic] emergent from the cooperative interaction among the members;
9. The group as a whole helps each individual member clarify his own concept of need, refine his own meanings, improve the logic of his own experience. It encourages his creative contributions, helps him to evaluate his own self-selections, shows him how to appraise his own value judgments;
10. Responsibility for the success of the total group enterprise is assumed by everyone, each contributing in his own best way through free and open interaction among members which is maintained at all times;
11. Cooperative and continuous evaluation by the group of its own decisions and actions is made in the light of the developing need-experience. (pp. 59-61)

Laissez-faire groups. A third group pattern, also derived from the work of Lewin, Lippitt and White, is the laissez-faire pattern. This pattern has received rather less attention in the literature on groups than have the other two group patterns, possibly because laissez-faire groups quickly tend to become either authoritarian or democratic groups (Golembiewski, 1962, p. 211). Nonetheless, four characteristics of laissez-faire groups can be listed:

1. Group members are free to reach individual decisions;
2. Leader participation is minimal;
3. Coordination of group activities is done on an emergent basis;
4. Evaluation of productivity rests with each individual. (Gordon, 1964, pp. 62,63)

Process Variables

A Maze of Variables

A group of curriculum decision-makers somehow must reach decisions concerning the intended ends and intended means of teaching and learning. In searching the literature for variables by which the decision-making processes of such groups might be described, the writer started by giving labels to the tacit variables used by Lindblom (above, Table 2.8). Characteristics 1a and 1b are different values of a variable that might be labelled "Clarity of Objectives"; characteristics 2a and 2b represent different perspectives on "Ends/Means Relationships"; the variable which distinguishes 3a and 3b could be referred to as "Criteria for Judging

Policies"; "Extent of Analysis" and "Role of Theory" are possible names for the variables in the fourth and fifth rows of Table 2.8.

A more comprehensive list of variables was available in the Schmidtlein (1974) article quoted above. Schmidtlein listed the following thirteen "process" variables:

1. Rate of change;
2. Deadlines;
3. Competing Priorities;
4. Representativeness;
5. Causal Relationships;
6. Change Technology;
7. Outputs;
8. Quantification;
9. Location of Economic and Social Resources;
10. Location of Human Resources;
11. Information Resources;
12. Consensus;
13. Functions.

In searching the literature for variables pertaining to groups, it was found that most studies of small groups have tended to treat only a few variables, and the variables used in one study seldom have any clear relationship to variables used in other studies, resulting in the superficial treatment of a very broad range of variables (Golembiewski, 1962, p. 73). After reviewing the literature on small group research, Golembiewski (1962) supported the notion that "inappreciable precision has been attained by the social scientist in specifying the characteristics by which differences among groups are to be described" (p. 85). Golembiewski drew attention to fourteen variables which had been listed by Hemphill and Westie (1950) as being the key variables on which groups differ:

1. Autonomy;
2. Control;
3. Flexibility;
4. Hedonic tone;
5. Homogeneity;
6. Intimacy;
7. Participation;
8. Permeability;
9. Polarization;
10. Potency;
11. Stability;
12. Stratification;
13. Viscidity;
14. Size.

However, these variables were criticized by Hemphill himself and by Golembiewski because they are neither independent nor unidimensional, and because they lack both face validity and reliability as research tools (Golembiewski, 1962, p. 85, 86).

In a nine-year study, McGrath and Altman (1966) worked with the acknowledged experts in the field and with a cadre of graduate students attempting to isolate significant variables that are used in group research. They began with over 2000 studies from which about 250 studies were selected at random for a controlled analysis of the variables used. They isolated 92 different and unique variables, about one-third of which appeared in only one study. The 92 variables were revised to form a listing of 31 variables that were then organized into six "classes" of variables:

1. Properties of group members;
2. Properties of the group;
3. Conditions imposed on the group;
4. Interaction process;
5. Subjective measures of member and group performance;
6. Objective measures of member and group performance; (pp. 40ff.)

The Need for a Guiding Theory

Further attempts to isolate group variables could be described in detail: Cattell and Wispé dealt with 41 variables; Cattell then joined forces with Saunder and Stice to study 93 variables; Borgatta and Cottrell isolated 34 variables (Golembiewski, 1962, p. 78). But perhaps it is sufficient to reiterate that studies of group variables have manifested "inappreciable precision". Or, stated more explicitly, "variables of the small group field tend to be idiosyncratic or unique

to specific researchers", a fact which McGrath and Altman (1966) blamed on a "lack of theoretical emphasis, lack of ties with other work, and lack of replication" (pp. 53, 54), with lack of theory being the most serious problem (p. 76).

Thus in selecting variables for use in the present study, a certain amount of arbitrariness must be acknowledged. The degree of randomness in the selection of variables was reduced by:

1. Selecting those variables which appear to have particular relevance to groups of curriculum decision-makers;
2. Concentrating on variables that pertain to the group and its environment, largely ignoring those variables which pertain to individual group members; and
3. Selecting a theoretical framework to guide the selection of variables.

Variables that are relevant to groups of curriculum decision-makers may, in fact, be no different than those that are usefully applied to other groups. Much of the research on small groups has been based on the assumption that there is a set of universal variables. However, it seems appropriate to retain an image of a curriculum committee rather than, say, a farm family, an assembly-line crew or a pre-school play group, when selecting variables for the present study.[14]

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[14] Parsons (in Devereux, 1961, p. 39) noted that "the variables should be relevant for the action frame of reference".

McGrath and Altman (1966), in the study referred to above, noted that some variables pertain to individuals within the group, some to the group as a whole, and some to the environmental "surround" of the group (p. 38). The three domains need to be recognized as different orders of reality and, while none of these orders of reality can be completely ignored, the expressed purpose of this study is to deal with curriculum decision-making as a group activity.[15]

While there is no generally accepted theory of small groups, one of the more credible and, for present purposes, useful theories is that proposed by George C. Homans (1950). Two major strengths are apparent in Homans' theory. First, he selected variables according to the very useful dictum "as few as you may, as many as you must" (p. 16). Second, Homans' work has a quality which is at least partially congruent with the broad scope of this study. That quality is systemness. Homans defined a group as "an organic whole, or social system, surviving in an environment" (p. 6). The behavior of a group, Homans claimed, can be regarded as a number of mutually dependent elements whose relations can be defined.

Homans' use of the concept "system" is consistent with accepted definitions of the term. Ludvig von Bertalanffy (1968) defined a system as a "set of elements standing in interaction" (p. 38). Hall and Fagen (1956) maintained that a system is "a set of objects together with

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15 Thus, the present study follows the "sociological tradition" as opposed to the "psychological tradition" in studies of small groups (Olmsted, 1959, p. 16).

relationships between the objects and between their attributes" (p. 18). Segasti (1970) defined a system as "an entity which consists of two or more elements and a non-empty set of relations among the elements" (pp. 51, 52). The set of elements belonging to the system has two mutually exclusive and exhaustive subsets: the environment and the object. Similarly, the set of relations belonging to the system can be divided into those relations belonging to the object and those between the object and the environment.[16]

"Systemness" is assigned to sets of elements, objects, or attributes by an observer. Ashby (1952) made the point that:

> Because any real 'machine' has an infinity of variables, from which different observers (with different aims) may reasonably make an infinity of different selections, there must first be given an observer (or experimenter); a system is then defined as ANY SET OF VARIABLES that he has selected from those available on the real 'machine'. It is thus a list, nominated by the observer, and is quite different in nature from the real 'machine'.(p. 16)[17]

Bertalanffy, (1968) too, suggested that "there is no unique and all encompassing world system. All scientific constructs are models representing certain aspects or perspectives of reality" (p. 94).

Systems thinking is now a common orientation in many activities. Theorists and practitioners alike use a systems approach so as better to

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[16] Though there are heuristic advantages to distinguishing object from environment, such a distinction is often so arbitrary as to be meaningless. Ashby (1952) makes this point very effectively by asking what is object (organism) and what is environment when a man with an artificial arm is working on a car (p. 40).

[17] Also Ashby, 1958, p. 39 and 1962, p. 259.

understand and control the phenomena with which they are concerned (Laszlo, 1972, Chapter 1). Holism originally, and to some extent simultaneously, developed in the physical, biological and social sciences. The application of systems concepts began to influence the fields of scientific management, industrial engineering, human engineering and operations research (Hovland, 1964, p. 283). Cybernetics, game theory, decision theory, and information theory have contributed to the understanding of more abstract systems (Sadovsky, 1972, p. 172).

Homans (1950) noted the pervasiveness of systems thinking (pp. 86, 87) and applied it to the study of small groups. He began his study of a group with a consideration of the group's environment. Two questions were asked: "What is the nature of the group's environment?" and, "What is the response of the group to the demands of the environment?" (p. 88). To answer these questions, Homans found it necessary to study elements of the group, elements of the environment and the relationships that exist between and among them. These sets of elements and their relations Homans referred to as the external system of the group.

However, the group also has an internal system which Homans defined as the network of elements and relations that exist and develop within the group itself and which are not directly conditioned by the environment (p. 109). The external system and internal system combine to form the social system of the group (Homans, 1950, p. 90).

Homans recognized the complex network of elements and interactions that constitute the social system of a group but, in selecting variables with which to describe this network, he followed his dictum of "as few

as you may, as many as you must". He sufficed with three highly interdependent variables that, in systems language, can be considered to be "leading parts", in that they occupy a central position relative to other variables that could be identified. These variables have great influence in determining the character of the group; a small change in any one of these variables can cause a considerable change in other elements and in the total system represented by the group.

The three variables selected by Homans were "activities", "interactions," and "sentiments".[18] He defined activities as "things that people do" (p. 34). Playing, hitting, speaking, thinking, and decision-making are examples of activities.

Interaction was defined by Homans as "the sheer fact of contact, or association" between and among elements of a system:

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[18] At this point, liberties are taken with Homans' terminology. He preferred to think of activities, interactions, and sentiments as concepts, or elements which encompass a number of variables, rather than as variables, per se (p. 35). For present purposes, these terms will be regarded as variables which, admittedly, might subsume many sub-variables. In the introduction to Homans' book, Robert K. Merton referred to Homans' "elements" as "variables" (p. xx). Olmsted (1959) also referred to activity, interaction, etc. as variables and was critical of Homans for failing to distinguish sub-elements or components within each variable (p. 107). In the later stages of his study, Homans added a fourth variable, "norms." A norm, in Homans' terms, "is an idea in the minds of members of a group, an idea that can be put in the form of a statement specifying what the members or other men should do, ought to do, are expected to do, under given circumstances" (p. 123). Norms arise from ongoing activities of the group but are also influenced by expectations brought to the group from other situations of which group members have been a part. In the present study, norms are not isolated for special recognition as a variable because they often appear as characteristics of other variables. For example, positive feedback may emerge as part of a group's normative behavior. (See Table 5.2, below).

> When we refer to the fact that some unit of activity of one man follows, or . . . is stimulated by some unit of activity of another . . . then we are refefring to interaction. (p. 36).

Interactions occur in both the external and internal systems. They occur between the group and its environment and within the group itself.

Sentiments were defined by Homans as "internal states of the human body" (p. 37). Drives, emotions, feelings, affective states, and attitudes are all forms of sentiment, according to Homans. Though not directly observable, sentiments can be inferred by "common sense" observation of physical signs such as tone of voice, body language, and from overt expressions of feelings (p. 39).

Value of the Literature on Group-Decision-Making Processes

Perspectives

The perspectives on decision-making and on small groups which are outlined above have at least one thing in common. Each set of perspectives is the most common one in its field. The approaches to decision-making first explicated by Lindblom have served as the basis for much of the current literature in the policy sciences, administration, and organization theory. His conceptions have found touch points with ideas in economics and research and development (Hirschman and Lindblom, 1962).

That is not to say that the comprehensive and incremental (and clinical) approaches to decision-making are the only perspectives that have been identified. For example, Dye (1972) charted six different

perspectives on decision-making: the systems model; the elite-mass model; the group model; the rational model; the incremental model; and the institutional model. Baldridge (1971) described three approaches: the bureaucratic; the collegial; and the political. McCordic (1974) discussed political and rational decision models. What is claimed here, though, is that the perspectives identified by Lindblom represent major approaches to decision-making, approaches that are useful for the present study.

Similarly, the classical typology of groups formulated by Lewin, Lippitt, and White is described here because it is the dominant typology in the literature on groups and it serves a useful purpose in the present study. The value of these perspectives accrues from the way they form a logical fit with the alternative paradigms and platforms described in earlier parts of this chapter.

Variables

The works reviewed above teach two valuable lessons regarding the selection of group decision-making process variables. First, the literature demonstrated that there are no commonly accepted process variables; there are virtually hundreds of variables from which to choose when describing group decision-making processes. Second, it is evident in the literature that the selection of variables is most defensible when done in terms of established criteria.

These lessons from the literature are applied in the following chapters of this report.

Chapter 3

METHOD, TECHNIQUES AND INITIAL CONCEPTUALIZATIONS

"Method" is used here to refer to the general, overall approach employed in the study. "Techniques" refers to the specific procedures which comprise the method. This usage of the terms is consistent with their usage in Kaplan (1964). The terms method and technique are analogous to the terms strategy and tactics. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the method and techniques employed in this study and to describe some of the writer's initial attempts to conceptualize styles of curriculum decision-making.

Method

The Methods Employed in Other Attempts to Define Alternative Approaches to Curriculum Decision-Making

None of the writers whose work is outlined in Part A of Chapter 2 was very explicit in defining the techniques which were used in deriving and testing his conceptualizations. However, it is possible to discern each writer's overall methodology.

When deriving his modes of curriculum formulation, Blaney (1974) began with the recognition underscored by Aoki (1974b) that there are different ways of choosing learning goals. Blaney also accepted the proposition that:

> . . . the locus of curriculum decision-making authority is the critical element that differentiates diverse and often competing recommendations for curriculum development. (p.13)

From this proposition, a classification scheme was formulated. The scheme was "conceptually tested and revised with the help of colleagues and graduate students" (p. 14).

Becher (1971) analyzed a number of curriculum projects from international sources. He identified the general and specific assumptions which each project made about such matters as the aims of education, the nature of knowledge, and the role of the teacher. Then he tried to discern patterns among the assumptions. Arranged in clusters, the assumptions constituted particular styles of curriculum development. The clusters were submitted for debate by a number of curriculum experts and were subsequently modified.

Macdonald (1972) began by acknowledging the importance of different levels of values as the source of curriculum components. He then put forward a possible "conceptual solution" to overcome the communications problems experienced by curriculum developers who operate from different perspectives (p. 3). His conceptual solution was derived from a synthesis of theoretical concepts from the philosophy of science (specifically, Habermas, 1971) and from the field of curriculum and instruction. Apparently, Macdonald's scheme was not subjected to empirical test. Instead, Macdonald suggested that:

> What has been said here is offered in the spirit of an emancipatory interest. If the general scheme has meaning for individuals each must utilize it within the self-reflective area of their own experiences, and validate and/or verify it on that basis. (p. 6)

Thus the conceptualizations outlined in the review of literature were derived from the rich experiential background of the writers coupled with the analysis and synthesis of documents and theoretical literature. Becher's and Blaney's conceptualizations were submitted for verification by expert judges while Macdonald's were put forward as a stimulus to individual self-reflection.

The Method of the Current Study

The method employed in this study can be summarized very briefly. The study attempted to synthesize ideas drawn from many fields of literature and from an empirical case study in order to conceptualize in grid form three styles of curriculum decision-making that can serve as ideal types against which to compare and contrast the styles of curriculum decision-making employed by actual committees.

Though the outcome of the study was a grid that one could describe as structured and orderly, the method employed in the study can be characterized by the term "eclectic". Schwab (1972) defined eclectic as:

> the arts by which unsystematic, uneasy, but usable focus on a body of problems is effected among diverse theories, each relevant to the problems in a different way. (p. 79)

Unlike an experimental study where a select number of variables are studied under controlled conditions, an eclectic study is defined by only very broad parameters. In the case of the present study, variables were drawn from many "diverse theories"; the possible sources from which to derive the alternative characteristics of each variable were not restricted; even the number of styles of curriculum decision-making which would be conceptualized remained an open question until late in the study.

Early Interest in the Diffusion of Curricular Change

At an early point in the selection of a research topic, the writer was concerned not so much with the whole question of curriculum decision-making as with finding better ways and means of implementing the curricular changes designed by the Department of Education for use in Alberta classrooms. The focus was sharpened when, during a review of the literature on social change, the writer came upon the work of Guba and Clark (1965) who said that change is essentially a four-stage process featuring research, development, diffusion and adoption (R.D.D.A.) (Table 3.1). It was recognized that the R.D.D.A. model is being employed in Alberta education. Research carried out by various agencies is used by select curriculum committees working under the aegis of the Department of Education to develop curricula that are disseminated by the Department, the A.T.A. Specialist Councils and school systems for intended adoption by classroom teachers.

The R.D.D.A. model is viewed as a tool for both research and planning. It has been used with considerable success in the post hoc analysis of innovative practices in industries (such as agriculture, medicine and education) where the marketing of new products and procedures is important. From research based on the R.D.D.A. model, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) were able to compile over one hundred generalizations

Table 3.1

The Guba-Clark Classification of Processes Related to and Necessary for Change in Education

	RESEARCH	DEVELOPMENT		DIFFUSION		ADOPTION		
		INVENTION	DESIGN	DISSEMINATION	DEMONSTRATION	TRIAL	INSTALLATION	INSTITUTIONALIZATION
OBJECTIVE	To advance knowledge	To formulate a new solution to an operating problem or to a class of operating problems, i.e., to innovate	To order and to systematize the components of the invented solution; to construct an innovation package for institutional use, i.e. to engineer	To create widespread awareness of the invention among practitioners, i.e., to inform	To afford an opportunity to examine and assess operating qualities of the invention, i.e., to build conviction	To build familiarity with the invention and provide a basis for assessing the quality, value fit, and utility of the invention in a particular institution, i.e., to test	To fit the characteristics of the invention to the characteristics of the adopting institution, i.e., to operationalize	To assimilate the invention as an integral and accepted component of the system, i.e. to establish
CRITERIA	Validity (internal and external)	Face Validity (appropriateness) - - - Estimated Viability - - - Impact (relative contribution)	Institutional Feasibility - - - Generalizability - - - Performance	Intelligibility - - - Fidelity - - - Pervasiveness - - - Impact (extent to which it affects key targets)	Credibility - - - Convenience - - - Evidential Assessment	Adaptability - - - Feasibility - - - Action	Effectiveness - - - Efficiency - - -	Continuity - - - Valuation - - - Support
RELATION TO CHANGE	Provides basis for invention	Produces the invention	Engineers and packages the invention	Informs about the invention	Builds conviction about the invention	Tries out the invention in the context of a particular situation	Operationalizes the invention for use in a specific institution	Establishes the invention as a part of an ongoing program converts it to a "non-innovative"

about the diffusion of innovations and assess the support or lack of support for each generalization.

The R.D.D.A. model has been less successful when employed as a method of planning, primarily because of failures at the diffusion stage. The limited success of the R.D.D.A. model as a planning tool is probably related to its inherent assumptions. Havelock (1971) listed five questionable assumptions which guide those who employ the R.D.D.A. model:

1. There is a rational sequence in the evolution and application of an innovation;
2. There has to be planning, usually on a massive scale over a long time span;
3. There has to be a division and coordination of labour;
4. There are passive but rational adopters who will accept the innovations produced by an elite group of developers;
5. There are long-term benefits in efficiency and quality when innovations are developed by the few for dissemination to the many (p. 85).

While admitting that the R.D.D.A. model and its underlying assumptions have some viability, Havelock claimed that it is an insufficient guide to planners. He suggested that the R.D.D.A. model should be combined with what has been referred to as "The Social Interaction Model" which recognizes the contextual network in which change takes place and with "The Problem-Solving Model" which regards the individual as capable of occupying the joint role of developer and user.[19]

[19] Ingram (1974) offers further elaboration on Havelock's ideas.

Even sharper criticisms of the R.D.D.A. model were levied by Erlander and House (1971). They acknowledged that the model has an inherent logic but criticized it as being too linear and too sequential to be representative of reality. Finally, Erlander and House charged that the R.D.D.A. rests on one very basic assumption which they claimed is erroneous.[20] The model assumes that individuals who participate at each of the research, development, dissemination and adoption phases of the innovative process all share a commitment to the same goals, whereas:

> The simple truth is that the most powerful forces in shaping the values and behavior of an individual in an organization will almost certainly be independent of stated organizational objectives. Another way of stating this is that within an organization or other bureaucratic system there is a lack of value consensus. (p. 74)

Extended Parameters for the Study

An enlarged scope. Doubts began to emerge regarding the value of "tinkering" with the diffusion process when the whole R.D.D.A. model was suspect. Further reading convinced the writer that there would be merit in expanding the scope of the present study. Instead of studying one part of only one planning model, consideration was given to looking at the procedures and assumptions which define alternative approaches to curriculum change.

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[20] For a more recent discussion of House's criticism of the R.D.D.A. model, and for a summary of Guba and Clark's defence of their model, see House, 1974, pp. 214ff. However, Guba and Clark (1975) have now admitted the deficiencies of their own model and called for approaches that are more complete, better balanced, and more realistic.

Perspectivism in preference to reductionism. Accompanying the decision to enlarge the scope of the study was a second decision which resulted in a choice of perspectivism over reductionism. Reductionism deals with complexity by explaining phenomena in terms that are familiar to the observer and encompass only a limited range of assumptions. For example, reductionist science may try to explain all forms of reality by the application of concepts from the physical sciences (Bertalanffy, 1968, p. 49). Or, as a further example, an agnostic philosophy, which is really more general than a religious philosophy, may be reduced to a special case of religious philosophy for purposes of explanation (Maruyama, 1961, p. 59). In the case of the present study, reductionism would be evident if other approaches to curriculum decision-making were explained as if they were simply modifications of the R.D.D.A. model.

Reductionism was regarded by Bertalanffy as standing in contrast to perspectivism. He stressed that "our mental representation of the universe always mirrors only certain aspects or perspectives on reality" (1968, p. 247). Phenomena are not objectively perceived. They are interpreted according to the experiential background of the observer. Thus, Kaplan (1964, p. 131) would appear to be justified in disavowing what Nietzsche has called "the dogma of immaculate perception".

Acknowledging the efficacy of perspectivism, the present study attempted to look at curriculum decision-making from multiple perspectives, rather than from one particular stance.

Data from both theoretical and practical sources. A third decision which tended to broaden the scope of the study concerned the data sources

from which styles of curriculum decision-making would be conceptualized. It was accepted that the variables and characteristics used in describing curriculum decision-making would be derived from the literature in a number of fields of study and through interpretation of the acts of curriculum decision-makers. The complementarity of these theoretical and empirical data sources was recognized and welcomed. Constituents of curriculum decision-making which were identified in the literature were looked for in the concrete world; observations of the concrete world prompted references to new bodies of literature.

Reliance on these two data sources was consistent with scientific tradition which regards literature as the source of theoretical data and direct observation as the source of empirical data. Both theory and empiricism seek to make sense out of reality.[21] Reality can take three forms: concrete, abstract, or symbolic. Concrete reality has a denotative quality in that it is possible to point to it. Abstract reality is less complete than concrete reality and is represented by concepts that are derived by a process of regressive depletion, the stripping away of non-pertinent attributes. If regressive depletion is carried to the extreme, a concept is reduced to a label that symbolizes reality.

Empirical research seeks to discover the relationships between and among concrete entities while theory concerns the manipulation of concepts.

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[21] This brief discussion of theory and empiricism is based on the writings of Kaplan, (1964) and the lectures of Dr. Richard Jung, Department of Sociology, University of Alberta.

Since both empiricism and theory deal with different forms of what is, in essence, the same reality, it is not surprising that empirical and theoretical research are complementary to one another.

The complementarity of theoretical and empirical research was recognized by Merton as early as 1946. Merton described as insufficient the notion of a one-way relationship between theoretical and empirical research. Empirical research is not undertaken simply to test or to verify theoretical hypotheses. It also serves to initiate theory (serendipity); it assists in the reformulating of theory (re-casting); it reveals new foci for theory (re-focussing); and it helps to refine the definition of theoretical concepts (clarifying) (Merton, 1970, p. 3). Since Merton's time, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971, pp. 85ff.) noted the need for "middle range analysis," which they describe as a merger of "grand theory" and "raw empiricism." T.H. Marshall (in Dahrendorf, 1967, p. 274) called for "stepping stones in the middle distance" to maximize the mutuality of theory and practice. A similar plea was put forward by Shaver and Larkins (1973).

Summary

The present study is an attempt to explicate the concept, "style of curriculum decision-making". It represents a search for the perspectives which characterize alternative styles and for the variables on which one style can be distinguished from another. The method employed in the study is an eclectic one in which ideas drawn from theoretical literature are complemented with data from empirical sources.

Techniques

The Search for Theoretical Data

The previous chapter reviewed selected literature related to styles of curriculum decision-making, paradigmatology, educational platforms, and decision-making in small groups. The literature was drawn from a number of fields.

The technique employed in the survey of literature might be described as "progressive." The writer began with an interest in the diffusion of curriculum, in the context of a study of social change. Readings in social change provided an entry to systems thinking, especially the literature on General System Theory (G.S.T.). A focus on G.S.T. was complemented by study in the newly emerging field known as The Policy Sciences and a renewed interest in the literature on educational administration. There were frequent references to works in futurology, paradigmatology, curriculum theory, and the philosophy of science.

The technique of surveying many fields of inquiry was consistent with the method employed in the study: it permitted attention to a wide range of concepts, helped the writer to avoid reductionist thinking, and provided theoretical data that complemented those derived through the empirical techniques which are described below.

Transpective Interviewing

Some of the theoretical literature reviewed in Chapter 2 dealt with basic paradigms. It was noted that paradigms are not constant in either time or space. Paradigmatologists theorize that, especially during a

time of paradigm shift such as we are now experiencing, many paradigms will be extant among the members of a large society. One might expect, then, that members of a curriculum committee, who are often drawn from rather diverse segments of society, would exhibit certain paradigmatic differences. But, how does one discover these differences and their effects? Can the paradigms of individuals or groups be identified? Can they be labelled? Can they be classified in accordance with pre-set categories?

In an attempt to answer such questions, the writer undertook what proved to be an interesting and highly instructive foray in search of paradigms. The search began with an attempt to find sociometric and/or psychometric instruments which would ascertain the beliefs or values of respondents. Reference to Buros (1970), revealed that most such tests deal with a narrow range of beliefs and values that are less basic than the beliefs and values which comprise a basic paradigm, in the sense that the term is used in this study. Even the most promising instrument, O.J. Harvey's "This I Believe" test, did not touch upon the respondents' basic paradigm.

The writer realized that insights regarding basic paradigms could be inferred from the behavior of individuals and the group. But, the possibility persisted that one could probe behind overt behavior and gain even deeper insight into the paradigms of individuals and groups. A technique for penetration was needed. The technique chosen was one which Maruyama (1969) called "transpective interviewing."[22] This is a

[22] Transpective interviewing holds much in common with what Foster and Nixon (1975) labelled "the interpretive approach" to interviewing.

technique in which the interviewer takes on, as his own, the assumptions of the informant (p. 241). It is an attempt to "get inside the head" of the informant to see what the informant sees, to feel what he feels, to believe what he believes. By so seeing, feeling and believing, the interviewer is able not only to understand the paradigm of the informant but also to practise it.

The essence of transpection would appear to be the ability to role-play in the finest tradition of Stanislavski. It is necessary that the interviewer identify so closely with the informant that he can be his "stand-in", his surrogate. Ultimately, the interviewer should be able to answer his own questions, on behalf of the informant.

In a pilot study preceding the case study reported in Chapter 4, the writer achieved some success using transpective interviewing as a means of identifying the basic paradigms of individuals. Lengthy interviews[23] conducted with two African graduate students (Subjects A and B) enabled the interviewer to understand and tentatively adopt at least the major assumptions held by his subjects. By the end of the interviews, after having a sort of "fireside chat" regarding a whole constellation of beliefs, values and techniques, the writer was able to anticipate his subjects' views on family relations, the role of government and the merit of competition. The success of the transpection was verified by having both the interviewer and the informant prepare written responses

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23 The interview with Subject "A" was five hours long; with Subject "B" three hours. Maruyama reports interviews that lasted seven days.

to questions on these three final topics. The similarity of the written responses demonstrate that, at that point in the interview, there was paradigmatic resonance between the interviewer and the informant.

Encouraged by his success in transpecting the possibly gross differences between his own paradigm and the paradigms of his African colleagues, the writer then tried equally long transpective interviews with three Canadian acquaintances (Subjects C, D and E). These interviews proved to be less successful. Here, paradigmatic differences were far more subtle. It appeared to be possible to identify the dominant paradigm of each subject. At least a general tendency toward one paradigm or another could be detected. However, there seemed to be so many inconsistencies that the "similarity-of-written-responses-test" simply did not work.

In a move to enhance his transpection abilities, the writer then structured an interview having questions pertaining to each of the topics used by Maruyama in distinguishing the three paradigms which are described in Chapter 2 (above, Table 2.5). Structured interviews, which lasted an average of about seven hours (two evenings each), were conducted with three informants (Subjects F, G, and H). These interviews enabled the researcher to classify each informant as being unidirectional, random, or mutualistic in relation to each of the topics used by Maruyama. Having classified an informant on each of the topics, it was sometimes possible to identify which of the paradigms was dominant. Table 3.2 shows that Subject H, for example, was essentially a mutualistic person. However, most subjects were not as consistent in their responses as was Subject H.

Table 3.2

Transpective Interview-Tally of Responses for Subject H

	Paradigm		
Topic	Unidirectional	Random	Mutualistic
Science	x		
Information	x		
Cosmology			x
Social Organization			xx
Social Policy			xx
Ideology	o	o	o
Philosophy			x
Ethics	x		
Esthetics			xx
Religion	xx		
Decision Process			x
Logic	o	o	o
Perception			x
Knowledge	o	o	o
Methodology		x	
Research	o	o	o
Assessment	o	o	o
Analysis	o	o	o
View of People			xx
Planning			x

Legend: o = Unclassifiable or topic not discussed
x = Weak classification
xx = Strong Classification

Table 3.3 reveals that Subject F, for example, was both unidirectional and mutualistic.

The elusiveness of the very notion of a paradigm became evident. Paradigms appeared to be situation specific. Like Subject F, most informants showed some affiliation with each of the paradigms, thereby supporting Maruyama's (1973) contention that paradigms are not mutually exclusive (p. 3). But, if paradigms are situation-specific and not mutually exclusive, just what are they? Is the whole notion of paradigm a hypostatized concept that has "cosmic glow" but no basis in reality (Pepper, 1961)? Or, is it that a paradigm is one of those phenomena that is outside the domain of empirical analytic sciences which emphasize prediction and control and should be approached instead through hermeneutic, interpretive techniques which avoid the use of pre-set definitions and categories? Or, is a paradigm even beyond the inter-subjective reality of researcher and respondent and only knowable through critical self-reflection (Habermas, 1971)? The pilot study concluded with the realization that any attempt to classify the paradigms of individuals according to pre-set categories was doomed to failure. Because paradigms are situation specific and not mutually exclusive, every individual has a paradigm that is unique, even though significant attributes of his paradigm are shared with others. Hermeneutic techniques, (e.g., transpective interviewing) hold potential for revealing the paradigms of individuals. But, having discovered the paradigms(s) of an individual or group through hermeneutics, a researcher should avoid the empiricist's propensity to classify.

Table 3.3

Transpective Interview-Tally of Responses for Subject F

	Paradigm		
Topic	Unidirectional	Random	Mutualistic
Science	o	o	o
Information	o	o	o
Cosmology	x		x
Social Organization	xx		
Social Policy			x
Ideology	x	x	
Philosophy	o	o	o
Ethics			x
Esthetics			x
Religion	x		
Decision Process			x
Logic	o	o	o
Perception			x
Knowledge			x
Methodology	o	o	o
Research	o	o	o
Assessment	x		
Analysis			x
View of People	x		x
Planning	x		x

Legend: o = Unclassifiable or topic not discussed
x = Weak classification
xx = Strong classification

That is not to say, however, that classifications such as Maruyama's are of no use. On the contrary, the pilot study demonstrated that Maruyama's classification serves the purpose for which such ideal types are intended, namely, the provision of conceptual tools for use in description, comparison and explanation.

In summary, the pilot study with transpective interviewing did much to advance the current study. First, it helped the writer to clarify the notion of paradigm and to understand the three paradigms outlined by Maruyama. Second, it provided an experience with hermeneutic technique. Third, it brought about an added awareness of the real potential of ideal types. The experience provided a meaningful complement to concepts derived from the theoretical literature.

Techniques Employed in the Case Study

As indicated above, one aspect of the method employed in this study was the complementary use of theoretical and empirical data. Empirical data were gathered through a case study of a curriculum committee in action. Both the strengths and weaknesses of the case study technique were recognized:

> It is often argued that findings about the patterning of variables, based on even a single case, hold more validity than findings concerning those same variables when they are treated in isolation from patterned interactions. [However, where such studies are] undertaken without any prior agreement on a common conceptual framework, the generalizations which they suggest must be considered to be tentative and partial. (Kirst and Mosher, 1969, pp. 634, 635)

Selection of a case. The styles of curriculum decision-making which the writer was attempting to conceptualize could pertain to any group involved in choosing the ends and means of teaching and learning. Goodlad and Richter (1965) suggested that there are three levels of curriculum decision-making. At the societal level, decision-makers tend to concentrate on rather general ends of education and give little attention to specific means. At the institutional level, decisions are made regarding "middle-range" ends and means. Finally, at the instructional level, the treatment of ends and means becomes very specific. Though there is not a one-to-one correspondence between levels and locale, it is useful in the Alberta context to think of the province as the locale for societal decisions, the school district as the locale for institutional decisions, and the school or classroom as the locale for instructional decisions.

Consideration was given to completing one or more case studies at each level. However, the shortage of time and other resources dictated that one case study should suffice. It became important, then, to choose carefully the committee to be studied. A committee operating at the institutional level offered the advantage of having a contact also with societal and instructional concerns, so it was decided to study a curriculum committee operating under the aegis of a school system.

A committee of six teachers and two central office supervisors from one of Alberta's larger school systems was about to undertake an elaboration of the skills portion of the junior high school social studies curriculum. Membership of the committee included people with experience

on provincial curriculum committees and others whose experience was limited to curriculum decision-making at the school and classroom levels. All members of the committee had experience as classroom teachers.

The committee was to hold five afternoon meetings during May and June of 1974 at which members were to undergo in-service education for their roles as curriculum decision-makers. Following the in-service sessions, at the beginning of the summer recess, committee members were to meet for a ten-day period that would be interrupted only by weekends. Permission to sit with this committee as a participant observer was sought and obtained.

Participant observation. Participant-observation is often used during early efforts to understand complex phenomena. Becker and Geer (1960) used participant observation in their study of a medical school because that technique allowed them to use "an open theoretical scheme":

> . . . gaps in our knowledge committed us to working with an open theoretical scheme in which problems, hypotheses, and variables were to be discovered rather than with a scheme in which predetermined problems would be investigated by isolating and measuring the effects of specified variables. (p. 269)

For this same reason, participant observation was appropriate to the present study. The "theoretical scheme" (i.e., the initial conceptualization of three styles of curriculum decision-making which is outlined below) was indeed open. It provided a tentative list of variables that one might use as analytical concepts in describing the committee's style of curriculum decision-making. Further, the initial conceptualization provided some ideas as to how these variables might manifest themselves if influenced by different paradigms. But, to borrow from the language

of Becker and Geer, the early conceptualizations still had many gaps. These gaps were to be filled in part by a careful observation of the committee at work.

The observer's role. A very early decision facing the researcher was whether to be an active or a passive participant observer.[24] Direct participation in the activities of the committee might reveal nuances which would be missed by a passive observer. On the other hand, a more passive role would ensure greater objectivity. In the final analysis, the passive role was accepted because it ensured a minimum of interference from the observer; the writer was anxious to observe styles of curriculum decision-making, not to influence them.

The analysis of case study data. Details of the participant observation are reported in Chapter 4 where the activities of the committee are described and analyzed. The details were gathered by observing the committee during approximately eighty hours of meeting time, by conducting one or more interviews with each committee member, and by spending one-half day in the classroom of each teacher-member of the committee.

Much of the meeting time was spent with members working individually or in pairs. All meetings of the total committee were tape-recorded, using a Memocord brand tape recorder with six microphones to ensure that the voices of all committee members would be recorded clearly. The

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[24] The notion of being either a participant or non-participant observer is a mythical issue. Even the least active observer is still a participant (Schwartz and Schwartz, 1955, p. 347).

tape recordings were supplemented by rather copious notes written during the observations and by summaries prepared by the writer at the conclusion of each meeting.

Interviews were also tape recorded, the recordings being used to supplement the somewhat briefer notes made during and immediately after each interview.

Classroom observations were not tape recorded. Brief notes were made during and after each visit.

Unit of analysis. The present study focussed on variables, characteristics and styles of curriculum decision-making as they occur in groups. But groups are comprised of individuals. How, then, does one report on the decision-making style of a curriculum committee when "observations on individuals must ultimately be made" (Kaplan, 1964, p. 82)?

A problem of the same kind was discussed by participants in a symposium on the evaluation of instruction:

David E. Wiley: "I think the unit of analysis is the classroom, not the pupil. I think they are fundamentally different things."

Chester Harris: "But how do you distinguish the collectivity from the individuals in the collectivity?"

Dan Lortie: "You are talking about a different order of reality.[25] You are using the same individuals but you are using

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25 This reference to groups representing a special level of reality is reminiscent of the long-standing debate over the notion of "group mind", the idea that groups possess a collective consciousness. (Golembiewski, 1962, p. 39-40; Davis, 1969, p. 2)

> them differently. The psychologist or the physicist can both look at the human being, but this surely does not mean that they are looking at the same order of reality . . . . I think we confuse the fact that we get data from individuals with the fact that all behavior is individualistic [which it is not]". (Wittrock and Wiley, 1970, pp. 279, 284)

In recognition of the fact that all behavior is not individualistic, Getzels, Lipham and Campbell (1968, pp. 53ff.) suggested that the unit of analysis in group studies must be the "social system". That is, groups must be seen as a bounded set of elements in interaction with other elements in the set and with parts of the environment. The analyst must concentrate less on the individual parts of the system and more on the wholeness of the group. Buckley claimed that the key concept to be used in distinguishing the whole from its parts is "organization":

> When we say that the 'whole is more than the sum of its parts,' . . . the 'more than' points to the fact of organization, which imparts to the aggregate characteristics that are not only different from, but often not found in the components alone; and the 'sum of the parts' must be taken to mean, not their numerical addition, but their unorganized aggregation. (Buckley, 1967, p. 42).

"Entitivity" and "systemness" are the terms used by Buckley in defining the relative level of organization that characterizes a social group. Thus, in using the whole committee as the unit of analysis, the present study assumes a high level of systemness. That is, it assumes that the committee has defined, though open, boundaries, and that committee members are "elements in interaction."

Initial Attempts to Conceptualize Ideal Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making

Before beginning the case study, it was necessary to have at least a tentative conceptualization of ideal styles of curriculum decision-making against which to compare the actual curriculum decision-making style of the committee. Blaney's models were not yet in print. Becher's work was known to the writer but had been reported in an Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.) publication which took some months to procure.[26] Macdonald's paper had not yet come to the writer's attention. Thus, it was necessary for the writer to devise his own tentative conceptualization of alternative approaches to curriculum decision-making.

A Synthesis of Maruyama and Johnson

The initial effort relied heavily on the works of two theorists, Johnson and Maruyama. As reported in Chapter 2, Johnson (1967 and 1968) regarded curriculum and instruction as inter-related systems consisting of four products which represent inputs to or outcomes of three processes. Cultural content produced by the school's environment is an input to a curriculum development process which results in the production of a curriculum. The curriculum is a primary input to an instructional planning process which, in turn, produces a plan for instruction. The

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[26] It is noted with appreciation that Becher provided a copy of his original paper immediately upon request, after this writer had received the O.E.C.D. publication and recognized the value of Becher's work.

plan for instruction, when implemented through the instructional process, produces learning outcomes. These seven components of curriculum and instruction comprise the major (numbered) pivot concepts, or variables, shown in the left-hand column of Table 3.4. Sub-variables (those designated by letters of the alphabet) were derived from Johnson and from other authors cited above.

The unidirectional causal, random process and mutual causal models of curriculum development which are shown in Table 3.4 are based on the paradigms conceived by Maruyama and described in Chapter 2. Detailed characteristics of each model were derived partly from an interpretation of Maruyama's work and partly from other theoretical sources also quoted in Chapter 2. In fact, the contents of Table 3.4 were selected almost exclusively from theoretical sources. The variables and models were then "tested" in the case study which is mentioned above and presented in the following chapter.

Efficacy of the Initial Models

It was noted in Chapter 1 that Weber (1949, pp. 42,43) ascribed three attributes to an ideal type:

1. It must permit a comparison with empirical reality;
2. It must provide intelligible concepts for use in description;
3. It must facilitate the understanding and explanation of causality.

The ideal types in Table 3.4 were inadequate on each count. The selection and organization of variables were the major sources of weakness. The list of variables in Table 3.4 was useful in defining the curriculum

committee's role in the total curriculum and instruction process. However, in reality, the committee had only a peripheral concern with many of the variables listed in Table 3.4. The setting of broad curricular goals was not its responsibility. Members were not engaged in actual instruction, nor in its evaluation. Their efforts were devoted to the preparation of materials that were, by some definitions, a curriculum or, by other definitions, an instructional plan.

Table 3.4 contained too few discriminating variables for use in detailed description of the rather limited scope of the committee's activities. For example, leadership emerged as an important determinant of the decision-making process, and the kind of feedback that committee members received from outsiders and from each other also proved to be important. But neither leadership nor feedback were among the variables in Table 3.4. These and other variables were needed to fill the "gaps" which Becher and Geer (1960) warned would be present in any early formulation.

Finally, the variables in Table 3.4 failed as constituents of ideal types because they obscured, rather than explained, the basic determinants of each style of curriculum decision-making. The writer was concerned not only with curriculum decision-making procedures but also with the assumptions upon which various procedures rested. Though there was attention given to the assumptions that guide the choice of content sources, and other indirect references to assumptions, the variables in Table 3.4 did not demand a close study of the basic paradigm(s) of the committee and its members.

Table 3.4

An Initial Attempt to Conceptualize Ideal Types of Curriculum Development in Small Groups

Variables	Unidirectional Causal Model	Random Process Model	Mutual Causal Model
1. Cultural Content Source	Rank ordering of sources	Needs of the individual	Sources in combination
1a. Assumptions re knowledge	Classificational	Unorganized	Relevant
1b. Assumptions re human nature	Theory X	Theory Y expressed through individualism	Theory Y expressed through the group
1c. Assumptions re society	Stratified	Atomistic	Symbolic
2. Curriculum Development	By outside experts	Independent	Consensual
2a. Ends-means relationship	Distinct	Not distinguished	Reciprocal
2b. Curricular autonomy	Vested in the elite	Dissipated	Shared
2c. Locus of curricular decision-making	Centralized or possibly deconcentrated	Devolved to the individual	Developed to the group
3. Curriculum	Prescribed, structured	Laisser-faire	Subject to adaptation
3a. Overriding goal	Conformity	Independence	Mutualistic heterogenicity
3b. Relationships among goals	Prioritized	Random	Mutually reinforcing
3c. Change of goals	Mandated	Spontaneous	Deliberate
4. Instructional Planning	By teacher	Independent	Consensual
4a. Sequence of planning activity	Linear	Random	Feedback loops
4b. Deliberation	As means to predetermined ends	None due to isolation	Key process by which ends and means are determined simultaneously
4c. Content selection	Content classified as instructional and instrumental	Content not organized	Goals, instructional content and instrumental content all inter-related
4d. Nature of display	Determined by teacher	Left to chance	Planned with built-in flexibility by teachers, students and others
4e. Control strategies	Authoritarian	Anarchistic	Cooperative

Table 3.4 (Cont'd)

Variables	Unidirectional Causal Model	Random Process Model	Mutual Causal Model
5. Instructional Plan	Inflexible, Situational and learning	plans, if present, are uncoordinated	Flexible. Relevant situational and extraneous influences amplified
6. Instruction	Pre-figurative and post-figurative learning	Unguided learning	Co-figurative learning
6a. Motivation	Extrinsic	Intrinsic	Mutually stimulating
6b. Action	By permission	Non-reflective	Praxiological
6c. Interpresonal relations	Defined by position	Minimal contact	Non-hierarchical
6d. Learning environment	Separation of learner and environment	Unorganized environment	Learner as part of environment
6e. Search image	Unity by similarity and repetition	Aggrandizement of self	Mutualistic symbiosis in a heterogeneous society
7. Outcomes	Pre-determined by initial conditions and state to be reached	Subject to laws of probability	Influenced by nature of interaction
7a. Evaluation criteria	External criteria	Criteria generated by individual	Criteria generated by group

As an outcome of the case study, the initial list of variables was changed in two ways: first, items on the list were re-categorized; second, a number of variables were deleted and others added.

A Second Conceptualization

Variables were re-categorized to separate procedures from assumptions and to accentuate the attention given to assumptions. Variables related to procedures were subsumed under the heading of process variables. Variables related to assumptions were placed into two groups. Some assumptions related specifically to curriculum and instruction and were labelled educational platform variables. A more generic, more pervasive set of assumptions concerning the ways in which people see their world was labelled basic paradigm variables. As later chapters will show, the variables comprising each category were changed and refined as the writer moved back and forth between theoretical data and records of the case study. But the categories themselves were retained for the duration of the study.

Criteria for selecting variables. Table 3.5 contains variables from a variety of sources: some were retained from the original list based on Johnson's work; some came from other theoretical sources quoted earlier, including the writings of Blaney, Becher and Macdonald; others were derived from the case study. Hence, there was a broad field of variables from which to select the few that appear in Table 3.5. The criteria used in selecting the variables for Table 3.5 were essentially the same as those employed by Talcott Parsons when he selected variables

Table 3.5

A Second Attempt to Conceptualize Ideal Types
of Curriculum Decision-Making
in Small Groups

Variables	Characteristics	
	The Mutualistic Style	The Hierarchical Style
PROCESS VARIABLES		
1. Origin and Form of Group Contract	Negotiated Arbitrary	Imposed, Binding
2. Perceived Locus of Autonomy	Devolved	Centralized or Deconcentrated
3. Mode of Decision-making	Incremental, Clinical	Comprehensive, Prescriptive
4. Priorities of Decision-making	Legitimacy, Effectiveness	Efficiency, Productivity
5. Nature of Group Interaction	Dialogical, Consensual	Dialectical, Compromising
6. Relation of Ends/Means	Simultaneous, Reciprocal	Sequential, Hierarchical
7. Feedback re Innovations	Amplified, Positive Feedback	Counteracted, Negative Feedback
8. Nature of Leadership	Person-centred, Laissez-faire, Situational	Task-centred, Authoritarian, Positional
9. Recognition of Decision Points	Imminent	Programmed
10. Assessment for Process Motives	Member Satisfaction	Increased Productivity
11. Assessment of Process Means	Total Group Appraisal	External Audit
12. Nature of Product Evaluation	Pragmatic, Intuitive	Rational, Analytical
13. Nature of Product Dissemination	User-developed	Impact Activities
14. Accountability	To Self and Clients, Shared	To Super-ordinates, Particularized

Table 3.5 (Cont'd)

Variables	Characteristics	
	The Mutualistic Style	The Hierarchical Style
PLATFORM VARIABLES		
15. Goals of Education	Self-actualization	Homogeneity
16. Perception of Education System	Responsive to Change	Structure-maintaining
17. Perceived Role of The Curriculum	Interactive Element	Utopian Plan
18. Sources of Curriculum Content	Merged	Rank-ordered
19. Organization of the Curriculum	Integrated, Relevance	Disciplines, Cohesive Units
20. Nature of Classroom Interaction	Co-figurative, Post-figurative	Pre-figurative
a. Teacher Role	Guide	Control Agent
b. Student Role	Self-directing	Irresponsible
c. Approach to Teacher/Learning	Inductive	Deductive
PARADIGM VARIABLES		
21. Nature of the Universe	Self-organizing	Predetermined
22. Nature of Man	Becoming, Critically Conscious	Predestined, Massified
23. Nature of Society	Coordinated Heterogeneity	Hierarchical
24. Nature of Change	Perpetual, Spontaneous	Controlled, Planned

to distinguish ideal-type organizational systems. Parsons used the following criteria:

1. The variables should be completely general and permit comparisons between groups of any sort;
2. The variables should be relevant for the frame of reference (i.e., paradigm) of whatever group is studied;
3. The variables should be relevant for the analysis of the particular functions being served by the group (Devereux, 1961, p. 39).

The challenge was to select variables that were general enough to satisfy the first criterion and, at the same time, specific enough to satisfy the second and third.

Two ideal styles. Table 3.5 ennumerates both a list of variables and the characteristics of two ideal styles of curriculum decision-making. The term "style" replaced the term "model" for reasons cited in Chapter 1. "Curriculum decision-making" was used in place of "curriculum development" because the latter is regarded by the writer as being a more comprehensive term. Johnson (1968), for example, isolated curriculum development and instructional planning as separate components in the curriculum and instruction system. However, both components can be subsumed in the notion of curriculum decision-making.

Only two styles were outlined in Table 3.5. The random process style was omitted because the case study featured a group of decision-makers and there seemed to be no valid reason for comparing their activites with an ideal type that was essentially individualistic.

(However, it was later recognized that such an ideal type does indeed have value in the study of small groups.) The "Mutualistic" and "Hierarchical" styles of curriculum decision-making summarized in Table 3.5 are described below.

The Mutualistic Style of Curriculum Decision-Making in Small Groups

The decision-making process. Mutualistic curriculum decision-making processes are characterized by a desire on the part of decision-makers to find resonance with their fellow committee members. All members of the committee may bring to their task common intellectual, emotional, and experiental backgrounds; they may share the same purposes for being on the committee and face these purposes with the same degree of voluntary commitment; they may have a shared philosophy of life (Maruyama, 1969, p. 243ff.).

But, whether or not committee members share this kind of resonance, they are characterized by a strong commitment to "work things out" together. Their group contract is one that calls for cooperation and consensus. Operating procedures may be routinized, but they are not inflexible. Rather, they are subject to negotiation and can be changed arbitrarily at any time.

In order that such compatible collectivities can be formed, it is necessary that curricular autonomy be devolved to small groups or to individuals. With autonomy so distributed, small groups of individuals can come together to form a Gesselschaft-like committee (Maruyama, 1971, pp. 16ff.). The internal homogeneity of such a committee might stand in sharp contrast to the heterogeneity that would be present between it and

other committees.

The search for resonance requires that interaction among committee members be dialogical. Discussion probably continues until consensus is reached. No one needs to "give in," in the sense of abandoning or even seriously compromising his position. Members simply discuss an idea until a "match" is found. Feedback adds an element of "brainstorming" to the discussion and tends to amplify ideas rather than counteract them.

Such discussions are often very long. Accordingly, the committee must place a relatively higher value on participation than on efficiency. The interests of the individual are not sacrificed simply in the interests of time or expediency. Further, the dialogical form of interaction requires a particular kind of leadership. Such leadership is at all times considerate of the individual. Leaders may hold no official position. They may emerge from the membership, possibly changing as tasks change.

Emphasis on the individual, working for consensus, and situational leadership give rise to an incremental, pragmatic mode of decision-making. Though decisions tend to be piecemeal, they are also self-correcting, in the sense that each decision has an (often unintended) effect on other decisions.

Ends and means are not necessarily distinguished. Certainly, there is no conscious effort to decide on ends before means. Ends and means interact freely. The committee is as likely to start by selecting activities or learning resources as it is to first choose the objectives

which the activities or resources will serve to fulfill.

Committees operating with a mutualistic style of decision-making do not draw up a schedule of issues that must be decided. It is possible, though not probable, that decision-points will be identified as they are reached. More likely, decision-points can only be recalled in retrospect. When a committee employing a mutualistic style becomes interested in assessing group processes, it will likely do so as a means of increasing member satisfaction. Though process assessment may take any form it will include opportunities for total group appraisal.

Products of the committee's efforts will be evaluated in accordance with the pragmatic test of whether they work. The primary criterion will be the felt satisfaction of the product's users. The committee feels accountable to the clients who use its products. In many cases, this means that committee members are responsible to themselves, since they are both developers and users of their own products.

The educational platform. An integral component of the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making is a belief in person-centred education. The processes described above have a logical fit with an ever-changing educational system that provides opportunities for students to realize their potentialities.

Where self-actualization is the goal of education, the curriculum must be flexible. It must be but one input into the instructional situation. As such, it is no more important a determinant of the educative environment than are, say, certain extraneous occurrences or the nature of the student/teacher interaction that is taking place. Sources of

curriculum content are not rank-ordered. The needs of society, the needs of the child and the nature of knowledge are seen as being essentially the same. Content that serves one also serves the others. This being the case, it is considered that the curriculum should not be organized according to categories of knowledge. Rather, a case is made for integrating the disciplines. Themes, problems or interests are regarded as satisfactory organizing centres for the curriculum. Or, possibly random exercises to be chosen according to their relevance may be provided. If the whole is not pre-divided into separate parts, individuals can create their own divisions.

The classroom, itself, is regarded as a place where students and adults learn together and from each other. Discovery techniques, inductive approaches, inquiry methods are favored. Students are credited with having a good deal of self-motivation and curiosity. Further, they are regarded as sufficiently intelligent and knowledgeable that they can assume responsibility for most of their own learning. The teacher need be only a stimulator and guide.

The basic paradigm. At the root of the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making is a basic paradigm that regards the universe as self-generating, self-organizing, and self-regulating. Man, in the generic sense, is in control of his own destiny. No master plan exists. Instead, the universe operates according to the principles of equifinality. The interaction of its elements will determine both the present and the final state of the universe.

Like the universe of which he is a part, each individual man is in a perpetual state of becoming. He is forever trying to know himself and to become as one with his environment. He is considered to be intelligent, creative, responsible and committed. Given the opportunity, he will develop a critical consciousness that will permit him to decide what is right for himself and his society.

The wants and needs of the individual are considered to be coincidental with the wants and needs of society; society exists to serve the interests of individuals. Since individual interests are varied, society must be pluralistic. But, pluralism must be functional. A functional pluralism (i.e., coordinated heterogeneity) is assured by the faith that the parts of society will interact in a dynamic, symbiotic relationship without destroying each other.

These conditions suggest that change is a continuous and desirable feature of life. The notion of planning for Utopian existence does not make sense; man and his universe are in a perpetual state of change in which satisfaction derives as much from serendipity as from controlled change. Deviance must be allowed to "swing to its own rhythm" (Aoki, 1971, p. 11). The source of this deviance is, of course, people - people who may change themselves but who, as demonstrated by Etzioni (1973), will not be changed by others.

The Hierarchical Style of Curriculum Decision-Making in Small Groups

The decision-making process. Where hierarchical structuring characterizes a curriculum committee, the group contract that joins

members calls upon them to "pull together" in the service of a cause greater than themselves. Members of the committee complement each other in a symbiotic relationship that might be labelled "organismic" (Maruyama, 1971, p. 15) or "nomothetic" (Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, 1968). If the relationship becomes either antibiotic or parasitic, the contract is not likely to endure (Maruyama, 1971, p. 15).

The group contract of a committee using a hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making is likely to be imposed upon the committee by an external control agent, by a strong individual or clique within the committee, or by the application of majority rule. The contract is likely to remain unchanged.

Not surprisingly, the hierarchical style works well in situations where curricular autonomy is centralized. The broad mandate of a central authority makes it necessary that decision-makers be held accountable to persons in superordinate positions.

Interests of the whole are placed ahead of individual interests. Since the interests of the whole are paramount, individuals compete to have their ideas accepted. Only if they are accepted by the whole, will the ideas of individual members be acted upon. Thus, each member "carries a torch" for his own ideas. Decisions are reached through a dialectical process of thesis, antithesis and synthesis. Compromise is common.

The sacrifices that accompany compromise are often made in the name of efficiency. Committee members are sometimes selected more for their ability to expedite decisions than on the basis of legitimacy. Also in

the name of efficiency, deviant ideas are counteracted by the use of negative feedback. A designated leader, often employing authoritarian techniques, helps the committee in the application of a rational, comprehensive mode of decision-making and an analytical, technical approach to both formative and summative evaluation of its products. In this mode, decisions concerning goals are made prior to decisions concerning ends. In fact, ends and means are among a whole range of sequential, hierarchically arranged decision-points that have been pre-programmed for the committee. The committee proceeds through these decision-points in a logical, organized fashion, bearing in mind the good of the total organism of which it is a part. When the committee "takes stock" of its progress, the primary concern is with productivity. Process assessment may be undertaken by an external observer or by the project leader.

Dissemination of the committee's products will involve the use of impact activities such as in-service education, persuasion, mandatory adoption, and the like.

The educational platform. Persons who employ a hierarchical style of collective curriculum decision-making tend to regard education as an agency for socializing children into a relatively homogeneous society. Education is the great equalizer. It is essentially a morphostatic system where improvement can be shown by modifying present practices rather than by changing the basic structure of the system.

The curriculum is regarded as an instrument of control, the primary determinant of what takes place in the educative environment. The nature

of student/teacher interaction should be stipulated by the curriculum. Extraneous influences should be minimized. Sources of the curriculum should be rank-ordered. Needs of the child and/or nature of knowledge may be important determinants of curriculum but, ultimately, curriculum content will be chosen in accordance with what society wants.

Decision-makers with a hierarchical view feel that they are best able to select and organize those parts of the cultural environment that will be displayed for learners. They feel that learning is facilitated by breaking the curriculum into disciplines and then further subdividing the disciplines into cohesive units that can be presented in a logical manner to the child. The teacher assumes responsibility for the child's learning and uses didactic or rhetorical methods for imparting the knowledge contained in the curriculum. The teacher assumes the role of an authority. The student is regarded as a "deficiency system" whose learning must be directed by an adult.

The basic paradigm. At the foundation of the hierarchical style of decision-making is a belief that the universe itself is predetermined and hierarchical. It is unfolding according to a master plan which places high value on order and regularity. In order to gain security, man must fit into the ordered existence that has been predestined for him. It is assumed that men are not inherently responsible. They must be coerced, or at least directed, into following procedures that will allow them to gain control over nature.

Since man must be directed, the best society is a homogeneous one. Deviation is basically troublesome. It would be best if the whole

society moved forward together. To this end, change should be planned by experts who have greater insights regarding the natural order of the universe. Changes initiated by these planners are comprehensive in scope, carefully orchestrated and relatively permanent. According to this conception, change is something that is done "to" people (or possibly "for" people) but not "by" people.

Efficacy of the Modified Conceptualizations

The two styles of curriculum decision-making outlined above were intended to serve as ideal types against which to compare the realities of an actual curriculum committee. That their intended purpose was at least partially fulfilled is demonstrated in Chapter 4 where the mutualistic and hierarchical styles of curriculum decision-making were used as conceptual tools in the descriptive analysis of a curriculum committee at work.

However, the efficacy of the two styles was further tested when they were submitted for study by two panels of judges. First, the two styles were studied by all members of the curriculum committee that had been the subject of the case study reported in Chapter 4. The committee saw the styles in the context of a written descriptive analysis of its work. Committee members were asked to respond to three questions:

1. Is the verbal description of committee activities accurate?
2. Are all interpretations of committee activities valid?
3. Are there significant characteristics of the committee and its work for which there is no corresponding variable in the

attached table (Table 3.5)?

Errors and omissions in the description and interpretation of events were corrected. Committee members judged the variables and characteristics of each style to be complete, except for the suggested addition of one variable in the process category: "Confidence of Committee Members in Self and Others." (This suggestion was acted upon, in part, in the third conceptualization reported in Chapter 5.)

The two styles were then submitted to a panel of three University of Alberta professors: one with expertise in philosophy and educational foundations; one with expertise in curriculum and instruction; and, one with expertise in educational administration and organization development. The university panel saw the styles in the context of a completed first draft of this report.

The panel members approved the three categories in which variables had been placed. They called only for reorganization (with possible additions and deletions) of the variables within each category. Further, they suggested that the random process style of curriculum decision-making be re-introduced.

These suggestions provided the opportunity for a return to the theoretical literature in a number of fields of inquiry and for the development of a third conceptualization of styles of curriculum decision-making, the styles reported in Chapter 5. The suggestions also prompted a review of, and minor modifications to, the case study report which is presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 4

A CASE STUDY OF CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING IN A SMALL GROUP

The present study represents an attempt to synthesize data from both theoretical and empirical sources in order to conceptualize ideal styles of curriculum decision-making. Sources of theoretical data were reviewed in Chapter 2. A report of the case study which was the empirical source of data is reported in the current chapter.

Techniques employed in the case study were described in Chapter III. A committee of Junior High School Social Studies teachers was observed and tape-recorded as it made curricular decisions. The writer performed the following functions:

1. Adopted the role of a passive participant-observer as the committee did its work;
2. Interviewed members of the committee in an effort to ascertain their opinions on a variety of educational issues; and
3. Observed each teacher-member of the committee in his or her classroom during a half-day visit.

Prior to any contact with the committee, the writer prepared an outline of three ideal models of curriculum development (Table 3.4). During the observations, and especially when analyzing the recorded results of the observation, the inadequacies of the three models were recognized and a modified schema was developed. The modified conceptualization of ideal styles of curriculum decision-making appears as Table 3.5 and is used as an analytical tool in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4 is organized in three parts. Part A contains a chronological description of the case study committee at work. Part B provides an analysis of the basic paradigm, educational platform, and decision-making processes of the committee according to the variables shown in Table 3.5. Part C, the concluding statement shows the place of the case study in the total study.

PART A - CHRONOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION

Introduction

The Need for Descriptive Studies

Countless authors have called for more descriptive (and fewer prescriptive) studies in the field of curriculum and instruction. Maguire (1969) was particularly forceful in suggesting that curriculum committees keep a record of their work. Taylor (1970) also pointed out the need for research that focusses on the existential situation. In contrast to Tyler's (1950) writing which defined what the curriculum development process should be like, the Taylor studies attempted to determine how teachers actually do plan curriculum. Similarly, Walker (1971b), Connelly (1972), Connelly and Dienes (1973), and others have attempted to be descriptive rather than prescriptive.

Setting for the Study

Organizational provisions for the development of curriculum in Alberta were described in Chapter 1. The Alberta Department of Education

decides the broad goals of education. With regard to the social studies curriculum, the Department establishes program objectives, specifies the substantive and syntactical concepts which students are to learn and outlines the topics to be studied (Government of Alberta, 1971, 1974). Though the provincially-established course of study is prescriptive, it is purposely very general. In fact, it is so general that one critic has termed it a "masterful non-curriculum" (Kellum, 1970). Within the parameters set by the provincial guidelines, local personnel have to make a wide range of discretionary curriculum decisions, including selecting both ends and means for one-third of the time devoted to social studies.

On the assumption that classroom teachers and school staffs need more direction and help than is afforded by the provincial guidelines (Stolee, 1974), numerous school boards across the province have initiated curriculum development activities at the system level. One large metropolitan board brought together committees of its teachers to produce a variety of curriculum materials for elementary, junior high school and senior high schools. At the elementary level, committees produced a series of unit plans and, most recently, devised a test of social studies skills (Forms A and B) for administration to students at the end of grade six. At the senior high level, a committee was brought together to formulate a statement of core objectives. A committee of junior high school teachers that was given the task of devising materials for the teaching of social studies skills became the subject of this study.

Composition of the Committee

Like four other committees working at other levels or in other subject areas, the Curriculum Committee on Junior High School Social Studies Skills (hereafter referred to as the committee) was scheduled to meet for a concentrated two-week period immediately following the 1973-74 school term. Members of the committee were paid honoraria as compensation for giving up part of their vacation period.

In selecting members of the committee, John Allyn[27], Supervisor of Social Studies for the district, had two considerations in mind:

> We wanted talented, experienced teachers who would guarantee the success of the project and, at the same time, we wanted to develop new talent in order to widen the leadership group for the system.(Telephone interview, April 23)[28]

The committee was placed under the charge of Reg Connors, a former junior high school social studies teacher who had just concluded his work with the district's project on "Education Planning by the Systems Approach". It was intended that Connors would provide direct leadership while Allyn planned to "drop in from time to time".

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27 Pseudonyms are used in place of real names.

28 This and all other quotes reported in Chapter 4 are from tape recordings and/or notes made during committee observations, classroom observations, or interviews.

Curricular associates (school-based social studies consultants) nominated sixteen teachers for membership on the committee. From this number, six teachers were selected:

Fred Bucyk;
Michael Dreyfus;
Grant Edwards;
Walter Fry;
Gail Phether;
Rex Gordon.

Of these teachers, three had been curricular associates (Dreyfus, Fry and Gordon). Three had worked on Department of Education committees developing the new social studies curriculum (Bucyk, Dreyfus and Gordon). Phether was "team-leader" of the social studies staff at her school and Edwards had been designated as a curricular associate for the coming school year.

The committee members brought to their tasks a wide range of assumptions and characteristics that related to decision processes, educational platforms and basic paradigms. Some of these assumptions and characteristics are revealed in the following sketches of the participants.[29] Data for these sketches were drawn from interviews and observations.

Bucyk. The foundation of Bucyk's approach to teaching is a firm commitment to the idea that "the whole purpose of schooling is to prepare people for a role in society." He feels that the schools must instil "conformity to basic values, for example, the work ethic." The

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[29] The following is presented as non-judgemental description. The subjects' own words have been used wherever possible.

major tenets of the curriculum should be prescriptive; the "master curriculum" should be decided by the Department of Education, where they have a "myriad of experts"; teachers who don't follow it "should be turfed out." Similarly, "kids have to have things decided for them." The teacher, whom Bucyk sees as essentially a foreman, should be authoritarian, manipulating students in order to get the best work out of them.

According to Bucyk, sources of the curriculum have the following priority: societal needs, needs of the student, interdisciplinary knowledge. The programs selected from these sources should be "pigeon-holed," grade by grade, in order to be manageable. Teachers, working within the parameters set by the Department of Education and system level supervisors, should develop this program, attending to the societal needs extant in their local communities.

This "hard-line traditionalist" quality is only part of Bucyk's teaching style:

> My objectives are definite but my method is fluid. I determine the objectives and the content. The kids have input when it comes to method, though . . . . For example, my pre-planning is never committed to paper. I guess you could say my plan is really a record because, after I tell the kids what we're going to do, we sort of work out together how we will do it. They may not get a printed assignment sheet until half-way through the unit. I select the references, and I've collected a lot of stuff over the years. But the kids seem to "get turned on" a lot of the time and they bring things from home . . . . My desk is "organized confusion" and the girls are always wanting to tidy it for me, but if they do, I can't find anything.

Bucyk is aware of what he calls "the basic contradiction in [his] personality." He believes in firm control but is at times permissive;

he likes structures but his own activities are only loosely structured; he thinks that school should follow the dictates of society but, in the final analysis, admits that, "kids are the index of the needs of society."

Connors. The assumptions held by Connors are only slightly less contradictory than those of Bucyk. Connors underwent a change from the time he was a "student-centred team-teacher" to the time he spent as a "hard-data type program budgeter." As noted below, the change appeared to reverse itself during about the second meeting with the committee.

Connors believes that the preservation of society depends upon the school teaching conformity to commonly accepted objectives. These "core" objectives should be set at the societal level.

> I'd be very happy in an environment where goals are set at the provincial level and means are determined locally. However, I don't think teachers should set their own goals. That would be breaking down the system. If you have part of a system doing an inappropriate activity, it breaks down the goals. I suppose the teacher can be part of the goal-setting system but must not do so independently. If goals need to be changed, they should be changed by the central authority on the basis of feedback from the local people. Education needs to build in self-correcting feedback mechanisms.

It is Connors' opinion that students at certain grade levels can be responsible for their own learning. The level of student involvement depends on their level of self-directedness. They reach a point where they know their needs as well as anyone does but, no one really knows what our needs will be in the future. Hence, we need to continuously re-assess needs by "re-cycling the feedback loops until the problem is resolved." Decisions in education must ultimately rest with those who are in political and financial control.

Dreyfus. Dreyfus attaches clear priorities to educational goals:

> Public education should be the great equalizer. It should level out people's other experiences. With this commonality meeting the needs of society, the needs of the individual can then be met. Some of the common things include tolerance of others (because we have to live together), and a common approach to problem-solving.

Beyond the minimal equality, there must be special provisions for the handicapped and for the exceptionally talented. Schools should each develop a unique character. Their identities should be determined by what they do beyond the common core which all schools provide.

The common core should be determined by the Department of Education. Beyond this, teachers should interpret the curriculum with "a fair bit" of autonomy, especially in the deciding of methods. If the common core is to be changed, "the change has to come from the top." However, the need for change must first be identified by teachers, parents, the Chamber of Commerce, and others.

Students should have only limited say about the instructional plan. "They need restricted parameters." Yet, Dreyfus claims that:

> When I gave the kids more say, I was a better teacher. The kids were more motivated. For me, treating junior high kids as adults has produced more success than being directive. I don't know. I guess my philosophy is in flux.

Edwards. Edwards' main aim in teaching is to develop independent individuals who have a place in society. The school should provide experiences that are relevant to students' daily lives but must, at the same time, bring about an understanding that ways of life different than our own must be respected.

Edwards is critical of the school for trying to do too much:

> I agree with the current return to academics. Until we get more resources, we have to limit our objectives. By academics, I mean structured, directed learning but where skills and feelings are given high priority.
>
> Academic scholars and classroom teachers should work together in planning the curriculum. Academics tend to be very progressive, while educators are conservative. Teachers and parents will bring the academics back onto their feet. Students should not have much say in curriculum decision-making. They can't handle the responsibility and don't seem to want it anyway.

In his own work, Edwards is a pragmatist. He prefers to establish clear goals and find the means of achieving them. However, some of his best lessons emerge in ways that were not planned. Thus, a carefully structured unit plan is prepared as a guide to his own and the students' behavior. The plan is usually completed but "there are many profitable, and some not so profitable, excursions along the way." The same unit plan is used with all students. They complete it according to their own pace and level of competence but a high level of expectation and encouragement is maintained.

Fry. Fry regards himself as a compromiser. He regards consensus as an important facilitator of progress. Hence, he favors an approach to curriculum development that involves parents, teachers, experts in the disciplines and, to a limited extent, students. The role of parents is particularly important so Fry seeks their opinions and advice.

> I feel most comfortable when I know where I'm going. So, if I have guidelines from the [provincial] curriculum and if parents have given me some feedback, then I, as a teacher, am prepared to set the goals and proceed toward them in a logical, organized way. It is the teacher's responsibility to plan the experiences for his or her class. Students should have input for the one-third time but, otherwise, both the teacher and the students should be controlled by the curriculum. Sometimes, though, a diversion comes along that pays big

> dividends. Sometimes the diversion simply provides a different means to the same ends. So, at that point, we should vary the plan.

Fry prefers to organize his lessons around a problems theme that has a solid base of "content." But the primary objective is not the learning of this content; it is the learning of process skills.

Phether. "Planning? Why, the students and I do it together." Phether regards education as a cooperative enterprise involving students and teachers with other members of the community. She sees societal needs, student needs and the influence of relevant concepts as "all tied together" in determining the objectives of schooling. If a priority has to be attached to any one, the present and future needs of individual students should be paramount. Any broad guidelines set at the provincial or school district level must be general enough to allow for diversity in the classroom. "No two teachers think and feel alike. And students differ so much that we have to use different materials and let them go at a different pace."

Phether offers this commentary on her role as teacher:

> The physical science teacher equips his students with the laboratory skills and process skills to figure things out for themselves. We in social studies have to do that, too. It's too easy for my students to come to me and say, 'Mrs. Phether, what do you think?' And we get into a discussion of it and the next thing I hear them repeating something in the hall and it's my opinion verbatim that they're using. If they have to go into a newspaper or magazine, come up with two or three different opinions, discuss them, analyze them, evaluate them, then, in fact, maybe they are thinking about it. I don't think I should be the sole one!

Gordon. Gordon feels that schools should teach what is "ennobling of man. Basic skills such as reading, expression and logic are what is

really important but we skim over them in order to meet societal demands for things like driver education." Gordon does not think students are qualified to choose what is best for them. (For example, in an experiment in which young people were left to choose their own diet, they chose sweets and non-nutritional items.) Hence, goal-setting should be stratified and shared among adults. Teachers and parents have definite roles to play, but primary objectives should be set by "wise men":

> The prime decision-makers and goal-setters should be first-class thinkers, wise men. They should choose content and process skills and arrange them in hierarchical order. The curriculum should be philosophically and logically continuous. Without wise men overseeing the totality of the curriculum, we will end up with a hodgepodge.
>
> After wise men have determined what is worthwhile, some (not all) selected teachers can be called in to elaborate the curriculum, select the resources and that sort of thing. But we mustn't present teachers with too many alternatives. Too much pressure on teachers makes them hidebound.

Within these limited alternatives, the teachers should accept responsibility for determining the means by which curricular ends can be achieved. The teacher should involve students in decision-making, at least to some extent, so that they can "learn autonomy under controlled conditions." But, in the end, the teacher should "tie it up for the kids. Don't leave them out in right field."

Obviously, the committee members displayed a wide range of characteristics. The committee was not comprised of like-minded individuals. This fact compounded the difficulty of isolating the "different order of reality" which distinguishes a collective from its individual members (Wittrock and Wiley, 1970). The "corporate identity" of the committee did show itself, though, in the "in-service" and "production" phases of

of its activities.

The In-service Phase

The concentrated two-week period of actual curriculum construction was preceded by five half-day meetings that were referred to as the in-service phase of the project. Allyn, the Supervisor of Social Studies, ascribed four purposes to the in-service phase:

1. To provide an opportunity for committee members to get to know each other;
2. To allow members of the committee to reach consensus as to what they were going to do during the two-week work-phase and to gain a feeling of commitment to the project;
3. To bring about an awareness of the committee's role as intermediary in making the broad guidelines set out by the Department of Education more meaningful to classroom teachers; and
4. To provide a time during which committee members developed expertise in the writing of objectives.

Meeting of May 2, 1974

The first meeting of the committee provided an opportunity for members to introduce themselves, discuss the advantages and disadvantages of behavioral objectives, and affirm the importance of teaching skills as part of the junior high school social studies program. These and

other objectives were included in a handout prepared by Connors and distributed to other members of the committee. The handout specified that, "at the completion of the first in-service session teachers will:

1. Know the other teachers selected for the project;
2. Recognize the emphasis placed upon behavioural objectives within the curriculum guide;
3. Understand the differing points of view presented by authors who are proponents of behavioural objectives (Mager, Popham) (sic);
4. Recognize the importance of the taxonomies of various domains in the creation of objectives;
5. Analyze given objectives to determine the components missing;
6. Create objectives based upon given goals;
7. Criticize their own and the objectives prepared by others;
8. Decide if they wish to continue with the summer project."

After introductions were made, Connors conducted an exercise designed to illustrate the point that committee members must learn to understand one another: "Until we all understand what we are getting at, there is no communication . . . . People will be talking at each other on different levels, misinterpreting and misconstruing each other's comments."

Connors underlined the importance of accurate communication during the setting of objectives. To ensure the necessary understanding, committee members had received prior to the meeting a number of books and articles dealing with behavioral objectives. These materials were the subject of frequent study and discussion during the first three

committee meetings. During the first meeting, the discussion touched on questions such as:

1. How specific or general should objectives be?
2. Can/should the school modify students' behavior?
3. Should social studies be less structured and more spontaneous than, say, mathematics or science?
4. Can teachers evaluate the growth of students without first establishing clear objectives?
5. Should we limit ourselves to objectives that are achievable?
6. Must objectives be measurable?
7. Would it be easier to start by identifying skills, by selecting materials, or by identifying objectives?
8. Should teachers have to justify their objectives? To whom?
9. How can the skill objectives for social studies be distinguished from skill objectives for other subjects?
10. Should objectives be stated with a consistent degree of specificity?
11. Should the objective stipulate content or just the skill, in isolation from other subject matter?
12. Is the committee to produce the plans for units of study or just skill exercises?
13. Should the objectives of the junior high school skills section be continuous with what has been produced at the elementary level? The senior high school level?

These questions emerged randomly from various members of the committee. No definitive answers to any of these questions were reached during the first meeting. In fact, the discussion revealed that committee members were unlikely to reach complete agreement on many of these issues. Compromise or, possibly, down-playing the issue sometimes appeared to be the only answer. An illustration:

Dreyfus: I like behavioral objectives because they clarify my thinking in terms of how to approach things.

Gordon: I am morally and philosophically opposed to behavioral objectives on anything but a very, very low level . . . . I would be far happier to see what we can do in the area of skills and to hell with behavioral objectives.

Bucyk: Call them behavioral objectives, if you like. We have to be able to express these skills in such a way that the other 900 teachers who teach social studies will understand that objective, whether or not they have shared in the shaping of it.

Fry: Let's try to leap the crevasse by assuming that we need some kind of objectives . . . this sort of philosophical argument may become less significant when we actually come to writing some of these objectives.

Meeting of May 9, 1974

The next meeting opened with no fewer than five people (Connors, Gordon, Allyn, Edwards and Dreyfus) encouraging the committee to work toward a common understanding regarding the specificity or generality with which objectives would be stated. These pleas were not inconsistent with the objectives which Connors had set for the meeting:

"At the completion of this in-service session teachers will:

1. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of behavioural objectives;

2. Locate the level of objectives useful to the skills project;

3. Identify the type and component characteristics of objectives useful to the project (Gronlund) (sic);

4. Examine the lists of skills presented in one of:
   (a) curriculum guide
   (b) 1963 NCSS yearbook
   (c) the elementary handbooks;

5. Select appropriate skills from other sources;

6. Evaluate the information generated by the elementary skills project;

7. Extend the results of the elementary skills assessment program."

Possibly in recognition of the need to prevent the kind of miscommunication that was evident in the first meeting, Connors altered the physical environment. During the first meeting, the committee members sat at opposite sides of a long table, with Connors at the head of the table. For the second and subsequent meetings, a circular arrangement of tables and chairs was provided.

This change of physical arrangements did little to dampen a controversy over behavioral objectives which had arisen during the first meeting. Connors appeared to favor the use of behavioral objectives. Gordon did not. Other members were less dogmatic and urged that the committee move on to consider different issues.

Eventually, after a protracted further discussion of behavioral objectives, the committee moved on to consideration of various sources from which lists of appropriate skills could be drawn. Various outlines of social studies skills were distributed for study and discussion. The discussions centred around questions such as:

1. Should the committee members "cut and paste" other people's work or should they "break new ground" by trying to develop their own list of skills?
2. Should their work be a simple extension of the work already done by the committee that developed the elementary skills tests?
3. Should results of the elementary tests serve as a sort of "needs assessment" on which the junior high program would be built?
4. Should skills be arranged in an hierarchy? If so, should the hierarchy be based on level of difficulty or level of importance?
5. If a well-defined skills program is developed and distributed to teachers, will skills objectives receive a disproportionate emphasis in relation to valuing objectives and knowledge objectives?
6. Do teachers really need the help that this committee is attempting to provide?
7. Should the committee engage in test preparation rather than program development?
8. Since language skills, particularly reading, are an integral part of social studies skills, should the social studies committee be working in isolation from the language arts committee?

Once again, these questions were raised but not resolved. The question of continuity with the elementary skills tests was deemed worthy of more attention. It was deferred to the next meeting when

Don Hepple, Elementary Social Studies Consultant, would be present.

Meeting of May 15, 1974

This meeting represented a substantial departure from the objectives specified by Connors in his original handout:

"At the completion of this session teachers will:

1. Translate different models for curriculum and unit development into operational terms (Johnson, Fraenkel, Horvath) (sic);
2. Examine and evaluate the importance to the project of various instructional strategies (Fraenkel, Taba, Simon) (sic);
3. Study various types of and means for evaluation of the project (Formative - Summative, Analytic - Synthetic, the Stufflebeam Model) (sic);
4. Appraise different methods for evaluation for the project (NCSS 1968,) (sic)."

Models for curriculum and unit development were not considered; nor were various instructional strategies. Types and methods of evaluating the project were not discussed either. Instead, the meeting dealt with three topics: an assessment of the elementary skills tests, their results, and their relevance to the work of the junior high committee; a consideration of how the committee should organize itself for work; further consideration of the skills outlined by others, with particular attention to the headings used in categorizing skills.

Meeting of May 23, 1974

The topics discussed on May 15th also occupied the time of the

committee during its fourth meeting. Most of the time was spent in trying to decide which categories of skills should be included in the work of the committee. The committee was, thus, "back-on-track" with the objectives set for them by Connors:

"At the completion of this session teachers will:

1. Agree upon the skills to be included for development within the project;
2. Organize selected skills into related sets of skills where possible;
3. Select the appropriate area(s) of funded knowledge useful for the development of each skill or sets of skills;
4. Design the format of organization needed for the completion of the task;
5. Join the area of research and creativity appropriate to each participant's interest and experience."

Significantly, however, they did not return to the tasks which they had failed to attend to during the third meeting.

Many of the questions raised during earlier meetings had still not been resolved. For instance, it was still not known whether the committee was to "cut and paste" or "break new ground." Connors supported the adoption of a list of skills derived by combining the skills included in the elementary test with some headings from the Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Carpenter, 1963, Appendix). At the same time, Edwards had prepared an original itemization of skills based on life tasks of individuals from infancy to adulthood. Gordon and

Dreyfus were critical of the superficial nature of what they termed "the Mickey Mouse" skills outlined on most of the lists. They favored the recognition of the "pupil-to-pupil" skills involved in valuing and in interpersonal relations.

During debate on what skills to teach and how to organize them, there were periodic questions concerning basic objectives and the relationship of objectives to content. An even more basic question also appeared. Edwards suggested that the committee had better consider more carefully its whole reason for being. He asked, "What function is the committee really serving?" Gordon compounded the question by suggesting that teachers should prepare their own skills units and exercises; the only legitimate task of the committee was to prepare some intermediate guidelines. Dreyfus supported this suggestion by noting that autonomy delegated to teachers by the Department of Education was now being claimed by the school district. Allyn compromised the issue by noting that the committee's efforts should be regarded as being, at most, exemplary and not prescriptive.

Near the end of what was intended to be the final meeting, it was realized that the committee would need an additional meeting to finalize plans for the concentrated two week stint. This meeting was planned for the following week.

Meeting of May 29, 1974

To bring greater resolution to what had been a rather rambling discussion, Connors brought to the final in-service meeting a "draft of proposed areas for examination; a categorization of skills for junior

high school social studies."

The proposal suggested five categories of skills:

I. Skills involved in acquiring information:
   A. Locating skills.
   B. Evaluating skills.

II. Skills involved in organizing information.

III. Skills involved in decision-making.

IV. Skills involved in communicating:
   A. Oral communication.
   B. Written communication.

V. Skills involved in valuing.

The proposal was criticized as being both too specific and too general. Its introduction prompted a retreat to most of the questions raised during earlier meetings. This retreat was actually a digression, and Connors' proposal was not discussed fully. In the end, though, the draft proposal was accepted with only minor modifications. Individual members accepted responsibility for particular categories of skills and promised to come to the two-week work session ready to concentrate on the skills they selected.

The final in-service meeting concluded with a rather philosophical discussion during which two significant points were raised. Fry, mindful of the division of labor to which the committee had just agreed, called upon his colleagues to demonstrate a concern with "something more than the parts. We need to put this all together, to keep the whole picture before us at all times." Gordon noted the possible need to re-conceptualize social studies teaching. He suggested that social studies is not scientific:

> We have to get away from teaching a linear problem-solving model like that shown in this list of skills [above]. I don't know what the alternative is. But, my kids don't make decisions that way."

Finally, Dreyfus added the rather telling comment that the committee itself, had failed to use a comprehensive problem solving model. With that sobering thought, the committee adjourned for a one-month period during which members were to wind up their classroom activities and, time permitting, start work on the category of skills which they had selected.

The Production Phase

The actual working time of the committee started on the Tuesday following the Friday that schools closed. Work continued for four days that week. It was interrupted by the July 1st long weekend then continued for another four days. It concluded on the Monday and Tuesday of the following week. Hence, the ten-day period was comprised of June 25, 26, 27, 28 and July 2, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 9, 1974. Like the in-service meetings, the work sessions were held in the Instructional Materials Centre at the central office of the school district.

Organizing for Work

The first work session began with a review of the results on the elementary skills tests. Though Connors seemed prepared to invest confidence in the test results, other members of the committee did not consider that the results provided a valid base upon which to build the

junior high program. However, the results did serve to remind committee members that individual students differ widely in their mastery of social studies skills. This realization prompted the question of whether skills exercises prepared by the committee should be prepared for whole classes (i.e., for the teacher) or for individual students. This question, and a related question concerning format of the materials, were left flexible, in Connors' terms, "until we have had a chance to explore and create."

Committee members reported that year-end activities at their schools had prevented them from doing much preparation for the production phase. Consequently, they faced their tasks with more or less a clean slate. The skills areas that they had chosen from Connors' draft proposal provided the starting point. Though the selection of skill areas had been both arbitrary and tentative, committee members decided to stick with their original choices. Further, each individual decided to work cooperatively with another committee member whose skill area was related to his or hers. The "pairing-off" occurred spontaneously, without prior discussion. Bucyk and Phether saw a natural relatedness of their chosen areas, the acquiring, organizing and evaluating of information. Edwards and Fry teamed up to work jointly on communication skills; they were joined for a while by Connors whose assignment dealt with skills in decision-making. Dreyfus and Gordon combined their efforts in designing skills related to valuing and creativity. Connors soon became occupied with photocopying, arranging for typing, procuring materials and other facilitating functions. Allyn did, as he said he would do,

"drop in from time to time." So, except for the occasional sharing session, the committee completed its assignment by working in pairs.

The Production Phase Begins

The initial activities of the three pairs demonstrated a variation in concern for the whole as compared with specifics. Within ten minutes of separating from the total group, Bucyk and Phether were working on specific skill assignments. Bucyk had proposed a schema which showed information in three forms: maps, communication (oral and written) and graphics. Phether accepted the schema and work began immediately on exercises in map reading.

Edwards and Fry began by deciding an order of priorities among the specific skills in their categories. They discussed the rationale behind such conclusions as, "Oral skills should precede writing skills."

Dreyfus and Gordon started with a consideration of the Gestalt. The whole range of valuing and creative skills was possibly less well-defined than skills in the other categories. Hence, they found it necessary to spend time reviewing sources such as Krathwohl (1964), Raths (1966) and Kohlberg (1966). They eventually decided to organize their materials according to the levels in the Krathwohl taxonomy.

Issues Arise

After working in pairs for most of the first day, the committee members met together for a progress review on the morning of the second day. Edwards indicated a desire to hold frequent meetings of the total committee to ensure similarity of format and to obviate overlap.

Bucyk regarded such meetings as an interruption of his work. He preferred to have the committee work in pairs, comparing the results only when the creative output was finished. It was agreed that meetings of the total committee would be called when requested by the members, rather than on a scheduled basis.

Dreyfus reported that he and Gordon were concerned that they seemed to be producing exercises instead of units of work that had continuity and cohesiveness. Other members offered the information that they were doing the same but there was no discussion of the relative merits of each approach. It was simply agreed that exercises could be readily "plugged in" by teachers.

As work of the pairs continued, it became apparent that they were working on skills per se, with little attention to substantive content. It was also apparent that purposes, learning activities and resource materials were being selected both in reciprocal and simultaneous fashion. On more than one occasion, members were heard to say:

> "This is good material [e.g., a map, or an article, or a film]. What skills can it serve to develop?"

or

> "We can suggest this activity, but we'll have to locate some material to go along with it."

or

> "Obviously, with this material, we'll suggest this activity."

Numerous issues arose in discussions between members of the working pairs. Examples: Bucyk wanted the exercises to be grade specific; Phether preferred that exercises be outlined generally, then followed by

an example for a particular grade. Edwards wanted to develop a number of exercises that would be limited to the exercises that teachers would use; Connors (though he had dubbed the committee's activities as the "Skill Units Development Project") now had a preference for a large number of exercises that would provide teachers with a choice. Gordon wondered about including a re-print of an article to be used in a value-clarifying exercise; Dreyfus felt that teachers should be expected to find similar materials in their own school libraries.

Meetings of the total committee took place at irregular intervals. Though Bucyk continued to regard them as interruptions, Fry regarded such meetings as necessary to "ensure that each pair doesn't become ensconced in its own cocoon. The pairs might get so far off the track that they produce something they can't defend." Phether, too, wanted the feedback provided by such exchanges. She and others were concerned that the productivity of each pair might be uneven.

During one such committee meeting, Edwards expressed the thought that broad skills should be broken down into their component sub-skills. He charged that the committee was providing exercises without really identifying the skills that the exercises were to develop. An analogy was drawn with the physical education teacher who tried to teach the forward roll without breaking down the various stages of the roll. Gordon agreed, adding the suggestion that it is necessary to provide constant reminders or summaries so that students know where sub-skills fit into the total skill. At a later point in the same discussion, Dreyfus claimed that social studies teachers must reinforce mathematics

skills, such as graph making. He pointed out that mathematical concepts like interpolation and extrapolation can be used by social studies students in interpreting such things as political cartoons.

The question of format arose again. Committee members wondered whether all exercises should use the same format. Edwards and Fry felt that a consistent format was desirable. They suggested that each exercise should specify: (1) purposes, (2) setting, (3) procedures, (4) analysis, and (5) materials. It was acknowledged that this format had been borrowed from exercises produced by National Training Laboratories. Other members of the committee agreed to use the format, where appropriate.

A second issue regarding format concerned the writing of the preamble that would be included with the materials when they were circulated to teachers. Connors assumed that he would write the preamble. However, members of the committee questioned this assumption. They felt that, since the materials were a group effort, the preamble should be written by the group.

The relationship of each pair's exercises was also considered. Dreyfus and Edwards felt that an effort should be made to "cross-reference" the skills. Gordon felt the respective skills should "dovetail" with each other. Connors saw the skills as forming a hierarchy:

1. Information skills;
2. Communication skills;
3. Valuing skills.

At one point, Fry expressed the need to call in an outside expert on the communication process. He simply lacked the background that would permit him to identify the sub-skills associated with participating in a group discussion. Other members of the committee provided reassurance by suggesting that, though an outside expert might know more about group dynamics, Fry himself was the expert with knowledge of junior high school students. It was concluded that no outside help was needed.

A subsequent total-group meeting revealed a concern of committee members regarding the expectations that were held for them by the district central office staff. Specifically, they wondered how much material they were expected to produce. Allyn was the one to offer reassurances at this point. He advised the committee that they "need only produce enough to show that this [summer writing] project is a viable activity."

Even as the exercises were being developed, members were debating whether exercises should be written directly for students or in a form that required administration by the classroom teacher. They were wondering about the context in which skills should be taught. Phether insisted that library skills, for example, should be taught "at the point of need and not six months before or after."

Concerns Regarding Feedback

In more than one meeting it became apparent that members were not

listening to each other. Finally, Phether was moved to comment:

> There is no point in listening to others report. We can only judge their work by testing it in the classroom, or, at least by seeing it. Then we can discuss it. But hearing them talk about it tells us nothing!

The original plan, as explained by Connors, was to have the units written, typed and reproduced, distributed to other members, evaluated and discussed. But, Connors now reported, materials were being produced at such a rate that the secretary assigned to the task could not keep up with the typing and reproduction. Because of this problem, the materials could not be evaluated until the end of the summer.

The report of the typing slow-down triggered the release of a number of reactions. Phether was content to wait until fall, at which time she could try the materials in her classroom. Edwards wanted to appraise at least some of the work now. He was worried that he and Fry were "creating in a vacuum," with little or no awareness of what the other pairs were doing. He also felt the need for feedback regarding his own work:

> I've never produced units off the top of my head like this. Usually, it is a pragmatic experience where you sort of pilot the materials as they are produced.

Bucyk was not upset at the slow-down since he felt, anyway, that it was too early to step back and look at what was being done. Dreyfus saw a possible advantage in allowing another group of teachers to check the output before it was printed. Edwards countered that this was not a good idea because the committee should have an opportunity to cull the exercises before subjecting them to the criticism of other teachers. Gordon returned the argument, saying that nothing should be culled. "Everything will be useful to someone."

Conclusion of the Production Phase

Plans for Piloting and Implementation

As the committee neared completion of the production phase, it became more concerned with how its work was going to be distributed. Connors had made clear from the outset that committee members and other teachers would "pilot" the materials before they were distributed system-wide. Now, he added details. Each skill exercise was to be tried out by one teacher. Gordon and Dreyfus, who were being transferred to high school positions, would not be able to pilot the exercises but could continue as committee members. The committee would be given the assessment of each pilot teacher and have the opportunity to delete, modify or replace each exercise. The exercises, compiled in booklet form, would be distributed to all schools sometime during the 1974-75 school year. Committee members expressed general satisfaction with this plan, Dreyfus and Gordon adding wryly that the final stages had better not take too long because, once they moved to the high school, they might very soon be on "different wavelengths" than their former junior high school colleagues.

Reflective Inquiry

On the final day of committee meetings, the discussion turned very briefly to an assessment of the project. Only two points were made. First, the opinion was offered that the in-service session might have been more effective if group dynamics technique had been used as a means of helping members come to know one another, instead of the "somewhat

irrelevant" discussion of behavioral objectives. Second, it was suggested that the concentrated two-week work period may be too taxing. The same number of days spread throughout the year, or two one-week periods with a break in-between, might have been preferable.

The Informal Group

Aside from their highly productive working sessions, committee members shared time together during lunch and coffee breaks. These occasions might have provided opportunities for members to exhibit a further range of behaviors. However, the operations of the committee, particularly during the time that pairs were at work, was so unstructured that it became impossible to distinguish formal from informal activities. Hence, the present section does not include a separate description of the committee's informal activities. Similarly, the following section in which the committee's activities are analyzed makes no specific reference to informal activities.

PART B - THE CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING STYLE OF THE COMMITTEE

It was mentioned repeatedly in previous sections of this report that the case study was used as a source of data in the re-casting and re-focussing of theory and in the clarification of theoretical concepts. In Part B the case study serves a different purpose. It serves as an object for comparison with the ideal types outlined in Table 3.5.

The comparison proceeds as follows. First there is a descriptive analysis in which the activities of the committee are studied according to the process, platform, and paradigm variables shown in Table 3.5. Then the case study is compared and contrasted with the two styles of curriculum decision-making explicated in Table 3.5. Finally, a tabular profile of the committee's unique style of curriculum decision-making is presented.

An Analysis According to Selected Variables that Comprise the Decision-Making Process

The Group Contract

It was suggested earlier that the collective behavior of participants in a joint curriculum decision-making venture constitutes an order of reality different from the order of reality displayed by the members as individuals. The order of reality represented by the group is defined by the (usually implicit) contract that holds the group together. "Clauses" in the group contract include all those variables outlined below. That is, the group reaches certain understandings regarding matters such as its own interactions, leadership, mode of decision-making. But, aside from its clauses, the nature of the group contract is, itself, a matter of some significance. How did the contract come into being? Is it implicit or explicit? Static or changing? Binding or arbitrary?

Connors (1974), in a paper written subsequent to the production phase, claimed that members of the curriculum committee "had the

opportunity to establish the operating groundrules" which would govern their activities (p. 9). But this opportunity was never acted upon. The "groundrules" were never openly discussed. Rather, there was an implicit understanding that members would find some way of fulfilling the purposes for which the committee had been established. Thus, there was no conscious consideration of how members should respond to innovative ideas; whether there would be an on-going assessment of the committee's progress; or, if they were going to stress productivity or member satisfaction.

Because the group contract was implicit and unstated, it is difficult to determine the extent to which such a contract even existed. The strength of such a group contract could only be measured in terms of the cohesiveness of the group and its commitment to "the cause" and to each other. Though the group was certainly congenial, it was not really cohesive. Though commitment to "the cause" was great, commitment to each other appeared to be minimal.

Thus, the group contract was a weak one. The "we" feeling was not strong; the group did not really "hang together." Reasons for these weak linkages could be many. Possibly, the division of labor and the resulting pairing-off made it difficult for a stronger contract to be agreed upon. Possibly, a different style of leadership might have helped the group to coalesce. Possibly a lesser commitment to the task might have permitted members to develop a greater commitment to each other.

Perceived Locus of Curriculum Autonomy

The district's Curriculum Committee on Junior High School Social

Studies Skills was at an intermediate level in a hierarchy of decision-making levels. Their actions were, to some extent, confined by decisions made by the Department of Education and by their own school board. At the same time, decisions of the committee were intended to influence (though probably not confine) decisions made at the school and classroom levels. The committee's consciousness of its limited autonomy was demonstrated by members' not-infrequent references to Department of Education publications and to the expectations of their central office superiors. It was pointed out by the many discussions concerning "directions to teachers" that their decisions would influence teachers and students.

The Department of Education guidelines and central office expectations did not represent a serious restriction on the autonomy of the committee. The members had a very broad range of choices. They recognized that they could satisfy the expectations held for them by producing almost any solution to the problem of teaching the skills component of the junior high school social studies program. It is probable that any restrictions felt by the committee arose not from a lack of autonomy but from a shortage of solutions to this very crucial problem. The committee had been designated as a "leading part" in the school system and, as such, perceived themselves as having all the freedom they needed.

The activities of the committee provided an interesting study in the decentralization of curriculum decision-making. The Department of Education has, by statute, decentralized curricular autonomy to school boards. Section 13 of The School Act and subsequent regulations allow boards to choose instructional materials and to inform the Minister of Education only as a formality; pupil programs designed at the local level must be submitted for approval only if they differ substantially or completely different from provincial courses. Thus, there has been a clear, though limited, shift of curricular authority from the Department of Education to school boards.

During the deliberations of the committee, Dreyfus suggested that the Department's intention was to vest curricular autonomy in teachers. He warned that powers intended for teachers were now being usurped by this committee working at the district level. However, the warning was based on an incorrect interpretation of the legal basis for curriculum decision-making in Alberta (Ledgerwood, 1975).

The legal right to make curricular decisions has not yet been devolved to teachers; this right still resides with the Department of Education and school boards. What teachers have is the professional right to make certain instructional decisions. Thus, the committee was invading the decision-making territory of teachers only to the extent that it was making instructional decisions. Even then, the "invasion" was more a dropping of leaflets than a storming of beaches. Teachers were left with a choice of whether or not to use the materials dropped into their classrooms.

Modes of Decision-Making

Chapter 2 contained a brief summary of Schmidtlein's conceptualization of two modes of decision-making, the comprehensive/prescriptive and the incremental/remedial. K.A. Archibald (1970) referred to essentially the same two modes as the analytical mode and the incremental mode[30] and commented:

> While the differences between the two are important and interesting, there are no grounds for an all-out battle. It is not a matter of one versus the other, since the two are more complementary than mutually exclusive. (p. 73)

Rachel Elboin-Dror (1970) also recognized the complementary nature of the two modes and indicated that both modes are evident in educational decision-making. However, Elboin-Dror concluded:

> The dominant pattern of decision-making in education is by incremental change. Because of the tendency to avoid explicating value judgements, the strong sense of uncertainty and lack of information, the long wait to be able to evaluate results, and education's dependence on its environment, few decisions are reached by long-range planning methods of stating goals, looking for alternatives, and forecasting their possible costs and benefits. The education system usually tries to adjust to its environment and solve its problems by using incremental changes to "muddle through". (p. 247)

The committee whose activities are reported in this study demonstrated that each of the above quotes is at least partially true. In

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[30] Archibald not only sees the analytical and the incremental modes as complementary, he identifies a third mode, the clinical mode and calls for its synthesis with the other two modes. The clinical mode is commonly referred to as the Organization Development approach and forms part of the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making that is described in Chapter 5, below.

the first place, both modes of decision-making were used in a complementary fashion by the committee. Fresh from his experiences on a project in program budgeting, Connors preferred that the committee employ a comprehensive, prescriptive approach to decision-making. His preference became evident in the statement of objectives that he prepared for each of the in-service meetings, in his prolonged push for the use of behavioral objectives, and in his efforts to use results of the elementary test as a form of needs assessment from which the junior high program could be developed. This preference was further documented by the "model for the project activities" that Connors intended the committee to utilize. This model is shown in Figure 4.1.

It soon became apparent, though, that other members of the committee did not favor this comprehensive, prescriptive mode. Their objections first showed up when they rejected the elementary skill test results as a form of needs assessment. Ostensibly, their rejection was based on the questionable validity of the results themselves. But, significantly, the committee made no effort to find an alternative source of hard data.

Further evidence of the committee's distaste for the comprehensive, prescriptive mode was offered when the committee treated goals and means simultaneously and when they developed "plug-in" exercises in place of comprehensive units. Finally, Connors (1974) conceded that, "The sequencing of tasks in a linear fashion was seen as both a waste of time and an experience in frustration-creation . . . . The solution was to proceed in a less structured manner to see what would happen" (p. 12).

Evidence of incrementalism was documented most graphically by the

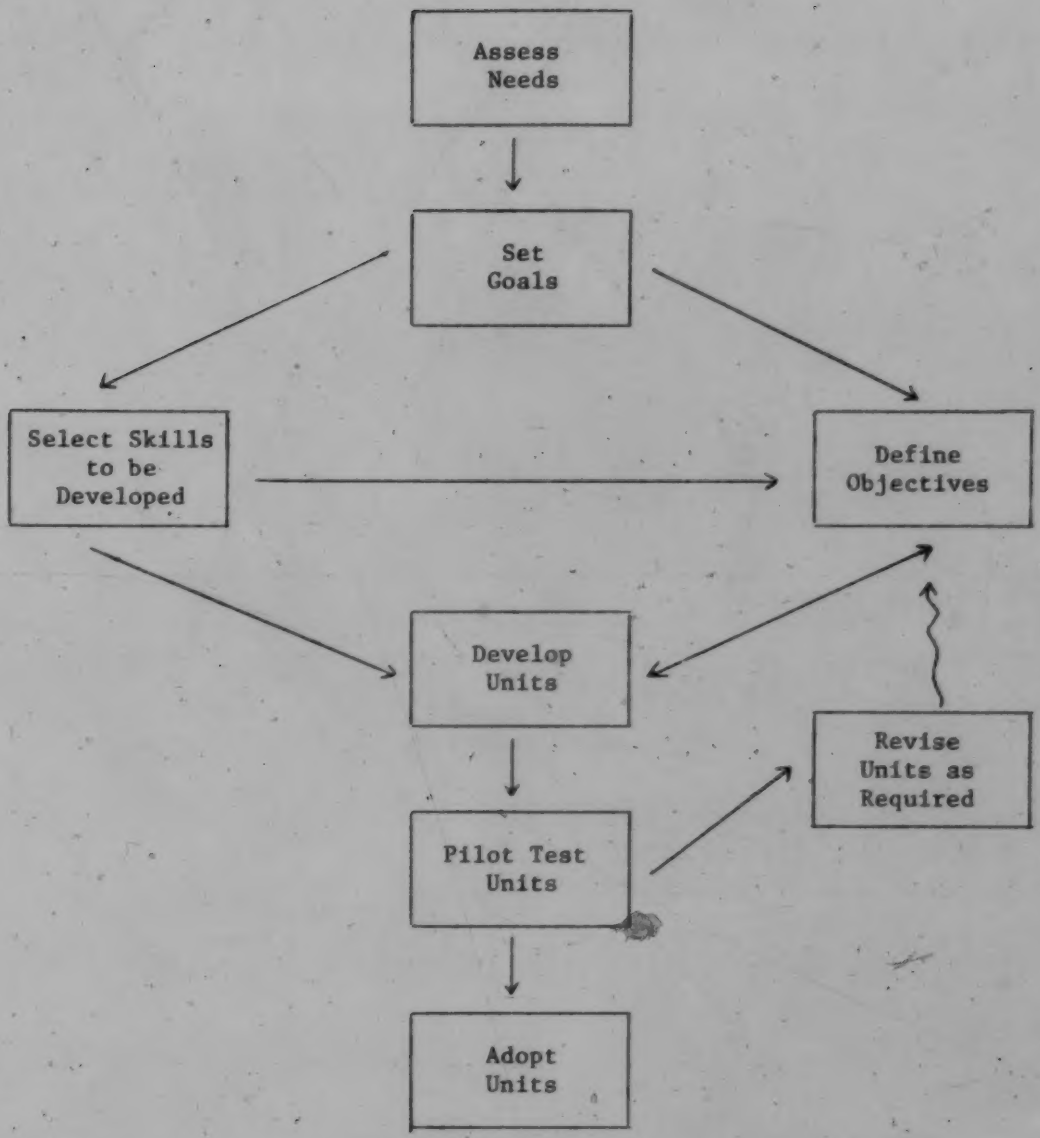

Figure 4.1

Original Conception of the Curriculum Committee Chairman as to How the Committee Should Proceed (Connors, 1974, p.10).

committee's failure to resolve in a definitive way the many significant issues raised during the first two or three in-service meetings. Presumably, for reasons similar to those cited above by Elboin-Dror, the committee failed to derive from these issues a firm set of policies that would guide their further activities. The issues either dissipated or were decided by each individual or pair in ways satisfactory to themselves. For example, early in the deliberations there seemed to be an assumption that the committee would develop cohesive units of study that focussed on skills. At that point the project was called, "The Skill Units Development Project." The assumption was never challenged; the comparative advantages and disadvantages of study units and skill exercises were never discussed by the whole committee, but, inexplicably, each pair of committee members ended up producing a compendium of skill exercises instead of cohesive study units. Consensus was reached without the need for a prescription.

However, a second issue did not end in consensus. Edwards reminded members repeatedly that they should be setting down their exercises in a common format. No one actually disagreed with him, but the matter was never acted upon until, eventually, he suggested a specific format. Other members expressed approval but the format was not formally accepted. A perusal of the committee's unedited publication reveals that a common format was used by some of the members some of the time but not by all of the members all of the time. Edwards, Fry, Phether, Bucyk and Dreyfus used most parts of the common format for most of the exercises they produced; Gordon employed an altogether different format.

The committee's negative response to Fry's call for outside expertise was a further instance of the committee being content to proceed incrementally. However, it would be incorrect to leave the impression that the committee employed only the incremental mode of curriculum decision-making. The committee provided evidence to support Archibald's claim that alternative modes of decision-making work together in a complementary fashion. Though incremental processes predominated, the committee's very mandate required that it take a comprehensive view of the problem. This view was evident, for example, in the number of efforts to ensure continuity between grades and integration between subjects. It was also evident in the committee's decision to "cross-reference" exercises, and in their plans to have exercises piloted and revised before dissemination.

Priorities of Decision-Making

The school district's policy of having selected classroom teachers develop curriculum under the leadership of central office personnel was an apparent attempt to maximize both efficiency and legitimacy. It was presumed that the committee approach would be efficient in saving time for the users of the materials produced and legitimate because decisions were being made by representatives of those affected by the decisions. A possibly more efficient approach would have been to employ full-time curriculum development experts who, by virtue of their specialized training and experience, could quickly produce an abundance of curriculum materials. On the other hand, legitimacy could have been maximized by allowing all teachers sufficient time to become curriculum developers. The committee

approach was accepted as an effective compromise.

How did the committee rate in terms of efficiency and legitimacy? Watching the whole committee at work, it did not appear to be very efficient. It repeatedly dealt with the same issues, without resolving them. It manifested frequent instances of non-communication and mis-communication. But, the work of the pairs was another matter. This division of labor was doubtlessly arranged in the name of efficiency. And the work of the pairs was indeed efficient. True, there were instances where work had to be re-done. Fatigue and indecisiveness caused occasional slow-downs. For the most part, however, the pairs performed expeditiously. Their efficiency can be shown by the volume of their products; the typewritten version of the skill exercises is over two inches thick. Whether the quality of their products also testifies to the committee's efficiency will not be known until the exercises are evaluated at the end of the 1974-75 school term.

What about the committee's legitimacy? Were members of the committee legitimate representatives of the mass of teachers? Or, did their previous experiences and/or leadership roles qualify them as members of a contiguous but nonetheless "expert" élite? How did the members see themselves? How might they be regarded by other teachers?

Conversations among committee members revealed that they shared the concerns of classroom teachers. Members made frequent references to the nature of their own students, to the facilities and materials in their classrooms and libraries, to the expressed wishes of staff colleagues, to the likely reactions of parents and principals. At the

same time, though, there were instances of a certain "we-they" feeling. One member was heard to say, "It is the teachers who will be most critical." Another commented, "Well, they may not all find it [a particular skill exercise] useful, but maybe that teacher out at 'Middling Corners' will just happen to need it." These few comments aside, however, committee members saw themselves as teachers helping teachers. It might be conjectured that other teachers would see them the same way.

Interaction Among Decision-Makers

Table 3.5 shows two forms of group interaction, the dialogical/consensual and the dialectical/compromising. Both forms of interaction were used during the committee's deliberations but both forms eventually gave way to a situation in which there was very little interaction of any kind.

The outstanding example of dialectics was the debate over use of behavioral objectives. Connors favored them - thesis. Gordon opposed them - antithesis. The committee ended up using a modified form of behavioral objectives - synthesis. At times, the different viewpoints of these two men appeared to have no common ground. Eventually, however, each acknowledged that the other's arguments had some merit; though only a tacit agreement was reached, it was sufficient to allow the committee to proceed.

A second instance of the dialectical mode arose when the committee had to decide how many combined meetings to hold. When Edwards wanted frequent meetings and Bucyk wanted as few as possible, a compromise was

reached by agreeing to call occasional meetings when there was a strong and urgent need.

Another instance of the dialectical mode was revealed by the actions of the pairs. Though the fact was only occasionally verbalized, the pairs were actually competing to out-produce each other. The competition never reached the point where it reduced members' willingness to help each other, though, and their helpfulness was part of the more dominant form of interaction, the dialogical.

Probably the most successful instance of the dialogical mode was the series of discussions which resulted in the choosing of skill categories. Almost every member of the committee contributed ideas which his or her colleague judged to be worthwhile. Some of the ideas were original, others were borrowed from published sources; practically all were synthesized into a coherent framework that guided the committee throughout the production phase. Interactions of the committee during this period were animated and complementary. Though the total group never reached agreement on the list of headings, when Connors produced an outline that tried to incorporate the various suggestions, members seemed happy to go along with it.

Some interactions were neither dialectical nor dialogical. Earlier discussions generated a certain verve, a sense of active involvement, a feeling that committee members were "carrying torches" for something they considered important. Later discussions were palled by ennui. Participants were neither championing their own causes nor searching together for a common commitment. Seldom did it happen that these later

discussions produced opposing viewpoints. A stand taken by one member was either accepted or ignored; only occasionally would it evoke mild disagreement or generate an antithetical point of view. Committee members talked at length, searching for (but seemingly not caring if they found) the positions around which consensus could be built. Members were apparently more interested in the work of their pairs than in interacting with other members of the committee.

Relation of Ends and Means

The nature of its assignment tended to make the committee more concerned with means than with ends. Broad skill objectives for the social studies were decided by the Department of Education while the apparent purpose of the committee was to suggest means for achieving these objectives. That is not to say, though, that they were not at all concerned with objectives. The rather global objectives specified by the Department needed to be stated in more specific terms. In this regard, Phether commented:

> We have to fall within the sort of guidelines - I guess you could call them objectives - that are in the handbook [Responding to Change]. Then I think there are certain kinds of objectives in the classroom that are the prerogatives of the teacher. We shouldn't tread on those. But, somewhere in between, we have to find some sort of jargon, some level of objectives.

Only in the talking stage did the committee regard ends and means as being in hierarchical, sequential order. During the actual preparation of exercises, they were treated simultaneously. As noted in Part A of this chapter, the choice of materials, activities and objectives did not follow a consistent order.

Response to Innovative Ideas

It is possible to conceive of the committee as one decision-making system in interaction with other decision-making systems. Feedback is found both within the committee and between it and other systems. Within the committee, feedback was minimal, compared to what it might have been. The infrequency of total committee meetings and the already-noted communications difficulties caused at least some members to express the need for more feedback. Phether, for example, wondered how her productivity would compare with that of others.

What feedback there was within the committee tended to be positive. There were good feelings about the importance of the committee's tasks, the prestige that accompanied membership on the committee, and the quality of each other's efforts. Sample comments:

> You darn rights, they're going to welcome . . . any help we can give them. Teachers are fed up with this freedom thing. We've got a damned important job to do and I think we can do it.

> Of course we're good judges. That's what we're here for. You've had valuable experience and so have all of us. We're supposed to give our judgement of the creative process . . . .

> Well, it's a bit different, alright. But it's at least worth trying out. I think you should write it up.

> We've already produced about forty handwritten pages. Anyway, let's all keep turning it out. I'm sure the majority of it is going to be . . . received very well.

Central office personnel, the teaching force, students and parents comprise other systems or subsystems that will eventually provide feedback to the committee. Edwards expressed the need for such feedback by indicating that, "It's hard to make decisions in a vacuum." Of these

other systems, only the central office provided any feedback during the time the committee was observed. Allyn, on at least two occasions, commented on the "hand-picked," "tremendously talented" nature of the committee. He expressed pleasure at both the quantity and quality of the work being produced. Bryson Strom, newly appointed Associate Superintendent for Curricular Services, dropped in to meet the committee and offered laudatory comments concerning the importance of their work.

It is difficult to assess the degree to which this positive feedback amplified deviation. The output of the committee may not differ significantly from other materials in the field. Gordon's early plea to "break new ground" was not clearly reinforced. Yet, the committee did venture into areas such as interpersonal skills, decision-making skills, and valuing skills. Without the presence of positive feedback, might they have sought security in more traditional areas such as map reading and report writing?

Nature of Leadership

In any system, certain elements become leading parts. Leadership, an important variable in any small group of curriculum decision-making, can be characterized as positional or situational; authoritarian, democratic or laissez-faire; person-centred or tasks-centred (Table 3.5).

The leadership question provided one of the more interesting dimensions of the current case study. Positional leaders were designated in the persons of Allyn and Connors. Allyn, however, had other demands on his time and delegated to Connors responsibility for directing the

junior high committee. Nonetheless, on his occasional visits with the committee, Allyn's leadership was often sought.

Connors had trouble compromising his commitment to a comprehensive, analytical mode of decision-making with his professed preference for a laissez-faire style of leadership. The comprehensive mode of decision-making which Connors tried to impose on the committee (Connors, 1974, p. 9) "requires the exercise of management control" (Schmidtlein, 1974, p. 8). But Connors did not want to exercise management control:

> I want to exercise a low-profile style of leadership. These guys know at least as much about what we're doing as I do. I don't believe in authoritarian control of talented professionals. I prefer to be a facilitator who "lets it happen."

This conflict of preferences caused members of the committee to charge Connors with manipulating them. They wanted to know if they were involved in a game where Connors had the answers and the committee members had to guess what he had in mind. The issue was partially resolved following this interesting bit of dialogue:

Connors: I am not trying to say that the product we come up with must be blue and have four corners. But I am trying to say that we have to decide ourselves that we are going to create a box.

Gordon: No, I would disagree with you. I think that we have to have a container, maybe. But the shape of the thing can best be left to work out as we go along.

Edwards: And the container may be different for different skills.

Bucyk: It must be colored though - we got that implication, didn't we?

Edwards: And it's got to be blue. If it's red, it's thrown out.

Connors soon recognized the unacceptability of the comprehensive mode. He gave up on trying to control the committee and dedicated

himself to facilitating their work.

Often, where a designated leader employs a laissez-faire style, more forceful leadership arises from within the organization. Such leadership may change according to the situation. In the case of the present committee, at least two members anticipated that such leadership might come from other members who had more extensive experience in curriculum decision-making. However, where such situational leadership did arise, it was of short duration. No recognized leader emerged to overshadow Connors' low profile.

Identification of Decision Points

Decision points, or choice points, occur at those stages during a committee's deliberations when it must consider the advantages and disadvantages of various alternatives and choose one or more of the alternatives. Such points can be made explicit by actions such as the passing of motions, the use of summary statements, the terminating of debate, the asking of clarifying questions, the approving of policy. Decision points can be pre-programmed, recognized as they emerge, or studied in retrospect.

The committee's decision points originally were pre-programmed. Connors' outline of objectives for each of the in-service meetings and the steps in his comprehensive model of decision-making were both designed to move the committee through a logical, sequential order of decision points. However, this program was followed to only a limited extent. The issues on which decisions were solicited seldom became

decision points in the sense of alternatives being clearly posited and studied choices being made. Instead, decisions tended to be delayed, avoided, or "re-cycled." No motions were passed. No minutes were kept. Issues recurred without being resolved by the total committee. Decisions that were reached were often the products of individuals or working pairs.

Motive for Process Assessment

If a committee from time to time pauses to assess the nature of the processes it is using, it may do so for at least a couple of reasons. First, it may want to judge its processes in relation to its productivity. Second, it may pause to determine member satisfaction.

As noted below, the committee engaged in very little process assessment for any purpose. Where they did so, the apparent purpose was to assess productivity.

Means of Process Assessment

When a committee does pause to assess its processes, it may employ a number of techniques. Other than by the odd comment, the committee did not assess its processes. Comments such as, "We've spent long enough on objectives, let's move on now" or "You aren't listening to me. What I said was . . ." arose in the conversations. These commentaries on process were infrequent, though. There was no time set aside for reflective inquiry such as that recommended by Goldmark (1968). The only specific attention to process occurred during the brief recapitulation which concluded the final day of meetings. The procedure took the form of an informal discussion in which only four committee members spoke.

Nature of Product Evaluation

Curriculum committees vary in the value they place upon project evaluation and the means they employ. The committee working on junior high school social studies skills was anxious that its materials be given a pilot run in the committee members' classrooms and in the classrooms of other teachers. Apparently, the purpose of the pilot study would be to evaluate the worthiness of the various exercises. Connors explained:

> We want to see what is workable and what isn't workable for teachers and students. By 'workable' we mean, 'Does it meet the objectives? Does it give meaningful practice in the intended skill? That sort of thing.'

Beyond this general statement, details of the pilot phase were left sketchy, possibly to be worked out later.

Thus, product evaluation was to be a pragmatic experience. At least during the pilot phase, evaluation was to be more subjective than analytical.

Nature of Product Dissemination

The committee was preparing curriculum materials for use by students and other teachers. The means for disseminating these materials were not fully discussed by the committee. The "Instructions to Teachers" which introduce the exercises seem to rely on what Chin and Benne (1969) have labelled the empirical-rational approach. An appeal is made to teachers that credits them with being rational and reasonable, quite able to recognize that the materials will be of use to them. If the materials, including this appeal, are simply distributed to teachers, then dissemination would

definitely be a "soft-sell." However, the idea of a high impact in-service education program for marketing the materials received the endorsation of committee members and might eventually be used.

Accountability

At one point in the deliberations of the committee, Dreyfus asked: "Who do we have to justify our actions to" [sic]. Though the question went unanswered at the time, later comments revealed that the committee, with ample justification felt accountable only to its own school board. The Department of Education had decentralized curricular autonomy (of the kind being used by the committee) to the school board; the committee was, in this instance, acting as an agent of the board.

That it recognized this accountability was evidenced by the many references to expectations of school board members and of central office personnel. But the committee also felt it must account to the students and teachers who would be using its materials. Finally, the committee members felt accountable to themselves, both individually and as a committee.

An Analysis According to the Educational Platform of the Committee

Goals of Education

Deliberations of the committee began with a protracted discussion of behavioral objectives. This long debate did little to help the committee reach agreement concerning the goals of education. In fact,

the goals of education, per se, were not discussed during the debate on behavioral objectives; primary objectives were discussed only briefly during the third in-service meeting. It became clear during the series of meetings that all members subscribed to the importance of skill development as an educational objective. However, the broader goals with which skill objectives fit received no attention from the committee. During the third in-service meeting Gordon challenged the committee to identify "the broad goals of education and something even deeper" (presumably, the rationale for such goals as might be identified). Edwards replied that "If we go back to basic philosophy, we'll never get on with it" and the committee proceeded to select and to order the particular skills for which exercises would be developed.

Yet, at the very next meeting, Edwards asked the question, "Why do we want to teach skills in the social studies?" He answered his own question by suggesting that skills are necessary if students are to meet their present and future needs. He then called for the teaching of skills that would help the student know himself, his group, and his environment. This suggestion received support from other members, especially Dreyfus who stressed the need for "pupil-to-pupil skills" and such things as propaganda-identification skills "which every individual needs."

The stress on developing the capacities of the individual gained dominance in the committee. It showed up strongly in the purposes stated for various exercises. Some examples:

- To become more sensitive to one's behavior . . .;
- To help spread participation and increase each student's awareness

of the parts he and others play in a discussion;

- To help the student to be able to interpret and apply the information . . .;
- To permit students to make value decisions;
- To help students develop a personal perspective on life.

Nature of the Educational System

Verbal exchanges among committee members revealed a fairly unanimous judgement that the educational system was:

1. Relatively slow to accept major, enduring changes;
2. Overly responsive in relation to the few parents and other persons with whom it was in contact;
3. Organized according to self-maintaining hierarchies, roughly comparable to the "levels" outlined by Goodlad and Richter (1965).

These judgements were also reflected during interviews with individual committee members.

Nature of the Curriculum

For the most part, curriculum was viewed by the committee as only one input into a dynamic process of instruction. They regarded the prescriptiveness of curriculum guidelines as varying in direct proportion to their generality. Broad guidelines, those set at the provincial level, left sufficient latitude and had enough legitimacy that teachers should not transgress them. More specific guidelines, such as the materials produced by the committee, were closer to the means side of

the ends-means continuum so had to be regarded as optional.

Sources of Curriculum Content

The three sources of curriculum content identified by the committee were not actually ranked in order of priority. Each source was represented in the three-part publication produced by the committee. Part I, "Skills in Acquiring, Organizing and Evaluating Information" tended to be drawn from the knowledge disciplines. The second part, "Discussion Skills Unit" was designed to assist students in social relations. Finally, "The Valuing Skills in the Social Studies" seemed primarily to attend to the needs of the individual.

Organization of the Curriculum

The committee showed a strong desire to de-compartmentalize skill development in the junior high school. Both in their discussion and in their products the committee demonstrated an inclination to integrate social studies with mathematics, science and language arts. The inclination was constrained by the limited mandate, by the pressure of time, and by the feeling that the committee had to complete its assigned tasks. However, in spite of these constraints, Edwards and Fry approached the Language Arts Committee that was meeting in the same building. They suggested, first, that the two committees combine their efforts for at least part of the time. The suggestion was rebuffed by the Language Arts Committee. A second suggestion concerned the placement in the Language Arts program of paragraph writing and essay writing. The teaching of these two skills in Grades VIII and IX, respectively, was said to

be placing some strain on social studies teachers because they wanted students to write essays as early as Grade VII. Possibly to help relieve this strain, the Language Arts Committee moved paragraph writing to Grade VII and essay writing to Grade VIII.

Another organizational question concerned the format of the committee's materials. They were organized as optional exercises (described by one committee member as a "smorgasbord" and by a second as a "cafeteria") rather than as cohesive, sequential units.

The Nature of Classroom Interaction

The committee demonstrated some ambivalence regarding the interactions of students, teachers, and learning materials. On the one hand, the committee seemed to assume that classrooms were essentially places where teachers teach and students learn. Activities of the committee were guided by what Mead (1970) has referred to as the post-figurative model of classroom interaction, in which youngsters learn from adults. Yet, in the valuing skills exercises produced by the committee, there were suggestions that students and teachers might learn together (co-figurative) or, indeed, that teachers might learn from students (pre-figurative).

Role of the teacher. Ambivalence was also evident whenever assumptions about the role of the teacher were revealed. Some of the exercises came complete with directions aimed directly at the student while most suggested that "the teacher should have students . . . ." But, even though teachers were given leadership roles, the predominant

impression that prevailed during committee meetings was that the teacher has to set the stage, then step back and let students take responsibility for their own learning. The introduction to Part III of the committee's unedited publication sums it up: "It is important that the teacher be non-judgemental, detached and supportive."

Role of the student. But committee members were neither constant nor unanimous in assuming that students could accept responsibility for their own learning. At times, they credited students with being "clear-cut, achievement oriented, and conservative-minded." When this view held sway, the committee seemed willing to assign to students the role of independent learners. At other times during their deliberations a series of comments seemed to change the mood of the committee and, especially, their view of students' roles in the learning process. On such occasions, the role of students was seen as being that of empty-headed beings who needed to be prodded before they would learn anything.

This ambivalence was not limited to students of any grade level. Grade VII students were sometimes viewed as incredibly knowledgeable and self-motivated. At other times they were spoken of less kindly. The same ambivalence applied to Grade VIII and IX students.

Nature of the learning process. There was an obvious preference, though, to allow students a great deal of independence. Exercises prepared by the committee tended to ask students to discover answers. In only one exercise is the teacher assigned a totally expository role. On numerous occasions, committee members stated that learning proceeds best when students and teachers are actively involved in the learning

process.

An Analysis According to the Basic Paradigm of the Committee

Characteristics of the decision-making process were observed. Characteristics of the committee's educational platform were revealed during interviews and classroom visits with individual members and were inferred from the committee's procedures and its products. All these data sources were used in the following analyses of the committee's basic paradigm. The variables used in this analysis are shown in Table 3.5, above.

Nature of the Universe

Some committee members (notably Bucyk and Gordon) regarded the universe as predetermined, running out its inevitable destiny. Other members (notably Connors and Edwards) preferred to think of the universe as self-generating, self-organizing and self-regulating. The remaining members admitted to having uncertainties about the nature of the universe. Thus, a full range of views was represented on the committee.

In spite of this range of views among individual members, the committee as a whole seemed to support the notion that the universe is not controlled by some omnipotent force. The committee did not behave as if there were immutable truths that they and other parts of the educational system were searching to find. Instead, the committee, by both its procedures and its products, demonstrated its conviction that man, as a part of the universe, is essentially in control of his own destiny.

This conviction was shown, in part at least, by the seriousness with which the committee tackled its job. It regarded its task as an important one, one that could make the difference in the lives of students and teachers. It acted as if at least part of the future was in its hands.

The committee's view that the universe is self-organizing is also shown by the exercises it produced. Far from a belief that "the universe is no doubt unfolding as it should", the exercises seem to assume that students and teachers need to decide the future. To this end, the exercises require that students learn how to use "knowledge as control"; students are challenged to decide what kind of a future they value and to work toward that future.

Nature of Man

The committee did not display a consistent conception regarding the nature of man. There was probably a dominant belief in man as being self-motivated, critically conscious and capable of acting according to his free will. But this view was neither consistent nor unanimous. Statements like, "In the long-run, people know what is best for them" (Dreyfus) were only slightly more common than comments like, "There are very few people who have real insights. Wise men should be setting the goals for the rest of us" (Gordon).

Nature of Society

The committee appeared to believe that society is now heterogeneous but that there is a strong tendency toward greater homogeneity. There

were constant references to the pluralism of society. Yet, underlying this pluralism, the committee saw an expanding body of common values and behaviors. In some instances, the committee members seemed anxious to resist the trend toward greater homogeneity. Their efforts to accentuate individual differences, their call for schools with a unique character, their call for accepting alternative values and understanding of other cultures - all of these seemed to imply support for heterogeneity.

But, though they favoured heterogeneity, they also wanted coordination. A concern with the holism of society and the interactive nature of its parts reflected itself in many of the committee's discussions and decisions. They were anxious to provide students with skills that maintain and enhance the cohesiveness of society.

The Nature of Change

The holistic view also showed itself in the committee members' view of change. They tended to think that the educational system will change at about the same rate that society changes; barring a sudden change in society itself, education will change in a slow, evolutionary, piecemeal fashion. However, the committee credited education with the potential of being a "leading part" in the societal system. Similarly, the committee hoped that the small changes they introduced might have some effect on the total educational system. But, they agreed with Fry when he said, "No one person or group of persons can really change anything. The top people can maybe slow down or speed up change but they can only do this in response to people at the grassroots."

An Analysis According to Two Ideal Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making

The case study discussed above was an important source of data for the ideal styles of curriculum decision-making shown in Table 3.5. The possible utility of the ideal styles can be illustrated by comparing and contrasting the committee's style of curriculum decision-making with characteristics of the mutualistic and hierarchical styles.

It is evident that the case study committee did not manifest either of the ideal styles to the exclusion of the other. For example, its mode of decision-making was incremental, a characteristic of the mutualistic style, while the apparent priority of decision-making was efficient productivity, a characteristic of the hierarchical style. The perceived role of teachers was so ambiguous as to reflect characteristics of both styles.

Thus, it is not possible to label the case study committee's style of curriculum decision-making as either mutualistic or hierarchical. However, it is possible to gain a clearer understanding of the committee's style of curriculum decision-making by employing the notion of "directional tendency". That is, it is possible to suggest the inclination of the committee to be either mutualistic or hierarchical. To indicate directional tendencies, symbols such as ← , → , ↔ , and —0— can be used in conjunction with the styles shown in Table 3.5. A variable on which the committee manifested mutualistic characteristics is shown with an arrow pointing to the left (←); an arrow pointing to the right (→) indicates

a hierarchical characteristic; a double-headed arrow (↔) suggests that both mutualistic and hierarchical characteristics were manifested by the committee; finally, a line through a circle (⊖) indicates that no values of a particular variable were in evidence.

An impressionistic representation of the ways in which characteristics of the case study committee compared with characteristics of the ideal types is shown in Table 4.1. Though a simple numerical summation and/or a weighting of selected variables might permit one to conclude that the case study committee's style of curriculum decision-making is predominantly mutualistic or hierarchical, such a conclusion should be avoided. It is preferable, instead, to rely on a descriptive profile of the committee.

A Profile of the Committee

The curriculum committee whose activities are reported in this chapter was a unique entity. Accordingly, it is not possible to hold the committee up against any ideal style of curriculum decision-making and expect a perfect fit. It is possible to depict the committee in a more accurate fashion by drawing a profile of the characteristics it displays in relation to the variables shown in Table 3.5. Such a descriptive profile is outlined in Table 4.2.

Use of the Profile

The teachers and supervisors who comprised the case study committee verified the general accuracy of the above profile. As the members of

Table 4.1

Tendencies of the Case Study Committee Toward Characteristics of Two Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making

Variables	Characteristics		
	The Mutualistic Style		The Hierarchical Style
PROCESS VARIABLES			
1. Origin and Form of Group Contract	Negotiated Arbitrary	←	Imposed, Binding
2. Perceived Locus of Autonomy	Devolved	←	Centralized or Deconcentrated
3. Mode of Decision-making	Incremental, Clinical	←	Comprehensive, Prescriptive
4. Priorities of Decision-making	Legitimacy, Effectiveness	←	Efficiency, Productivity
5. Nature of Group Interaction	Dialogical, Consensual	↔	Dialectical, Compromising
6. Relation of Ends/Means	Simultaneous, Reciprocal	←	Sequential, Hierarchical
7. Feedback re Innovations	Amplified, Positive Feedback	←	Counteracted, Negative Feedback
8. Nature of Leadership	Person-centred, Laissez-faire, Situational	←	Task-centred, Authoritarian, Positional
9. Recognition of Decision Points	Imminent	←	Programmed
10. Assessment for Process Motives	Member Satisfaction	●	Increased Productivity
11. Assessment of Process Means	Total Group Appraisal	●	External Audit
12. Nature of Product Evaluation	Pragmatic, Intuitive	←	Rational, Analytical
13. Nature of Product Dissemination	User-developed	●	Impact Activities
14. Accountability	To Self and Clients, Shared	↔	To Super-ordinates, Particularized

Table 4.1 (Cont'd)

Variables	Characteristics		
	The Mutualistic Style		The Hierarchical Style
PLATFORM VARIABLES			
15. Goals of Education	Self-actualization	↔	Homogeneity
16. Perception of Education System	Responsive to Change	←	Structure-maintaining
17. Perceived Role of The Curriculum	Interactive Element	←	Utopian Plan
18. Sources of Curriculum Content	Merged	←	Rank-ordered
19. Organization of the Curriculum	Integrated, Relevance	←	Disciplines, Cohesive Units
20. Nature of Classroom Interaction	Co-figurative, Post-figurative	↔	Pre-figurative
a. Teacher Role	Guide	↔	Control Agent
b. Student Role	Self-directing	↔	Irresponsible
c. Approach to Teacher/Learning	Inductive	←	Deductive
PARADIGM VARIABLES			
21. Nature of the Universe	Self-organizing	←	Predetermined
22. Nature of Man	Becoming, Critically Conscious	←	Predestined, Massified
23. Nature of Society	Coordinated Heterogeneity	←	Hierarchical
24. Nature of Change	Perpetual, Spontaneous	←	Controlled, Planned

Legend: ← Predominantly mutualistic; → predominantly hierarchical; ↔ both characteristics strongly evident; ◆ neither characteristic strongly evident.

Table 4.2

A Profile of the Committee

Variable	Characteristics
PROCESS VARIABLES	
1. Group Contract	Partial commitment to an implicit, changing contract
2. Perceived Locus of Curricular Autonomy	Autonomy perceived as great because of committee's dual mandate as representative of the school board and teachers
3. Mode of Decision-making	Rejection of the analytic mode in favor of incrementalism, though pairs were more systematic
4. Priorities of Decision-making	Emphasis on productivity by legitimate representatives of the teaching force
5. Interaction Among Decision-makers	Dialectical and dialogical interaction both present. Minimal interaction in later stages
6. Relation of Ends and Means	Ends and means treated simultaneously, relationships often undefined
7. Response to Innovative Ideas	Innovative ideas usually supported but sometimes ignored
8. Nature of Leadership	Positional leadership applied in laissez-faire manner, members largely self-directing
9. Identification of Decision Points	Original programming of decision points rejected, decisions avoided, delayed or left to pairs
10. Motive for Process Assessment	The small amount of process assessment that took place was motivated by desire for increased productivity

Table 4.2 (Cont'd)

Variable	Characteristics
11. Means of Process Assessment	What little process assessment there was took the form of occasional comments, informal discussion
12. Nature of Product Evaluation	What appears to be a pragmatic form of evaluation is still in the planning stages
13. Nature of Product Dissemination	Also still in the planning stages, dissemination will likely be a soft-sell based on the empirical-rational approach
14. Accountability	Committee accountable primarily to school board but also feel accountable to themselves, their students and other teachers
PLATFORM VARIABLES	
15. Goals of Education	Beyond a common core, students should have opportunity to amplify heterogeneity
16. Perceptions of Educational System	Education system seen as "flighty" but essentially structure-maintaining
17. Nature of Curriculum	One of many interactive elements in a complex classroom situation
18. Sources of Curriculum Content	Multiple sources have mutualistic effect on each other and on the curriculum
19. Organization of the Curriculum	Maximum flexibility, integration a worthwhile goal
20. Nature of Classroom Interaction	Largely pre-figurative but ambivalence apparent
a. Role of Teacher	Full range of roles from guide to control. Ambivalence
b. Role of Student	Once again, ambivalent, possibly arising from recognition of individual differences among students
c. Teaching/Learning	Preference for inquiry approach with a minimal stress on exposition

Table 4.2 (Cont'd)

Variable	Characteristics
PARADIGM VARIABLES	
21. Nature of the Universe	Probably self-generating and self-directing
22. Nature of Man	Capable of influencing his own destiny
23. Nature of Society	Pluralistic. Tendency toward greater homogeneity should be resisted
24. Nature of Change	Ultimately dependent upon people at the grassroots level

the committee continue their work, they may find that all parts of the profile are pleasing to them. In this case, they would not wish to alter their style of curriculum decision-making. It is also possible, though, that they would wish to exhibit different characteristics in relation to selected variables. Whatever judgements and responses the committee might make, the profile can at least serve to heighten their level of consciousness regarding the style of curriculum decision-making which they employ.

PART C - THE CASE STUDY IN CONTEXT

The case study served a number of purposes. First, it provided a test of the writer's earliest conceptualization of three ideal models of curriculum development (Table 3.4). It was realized during the case study that this conceptualization was inadequate, primarily because the variables that were used did not permit an observer to compare the characteristics of the actual committee with the characteristics listed for each ideal type.

Second, the case study revealed some of the important variables that needed to be considered when distinguishing alternative approaches to curriculum decision-making. These variables, in combination with others selected from theoretical literature, were used by the writer in the formulation of a second conceptualization of ideal styles of curriculum decision-making (Table 3.5).

Use of the second conceptualization in the analysis of the case study revealed that the two ideal styles of curriculum decision-making outlined in Table 3.5 were only partially satisfactory. The selection of variables used in distinguishing alternative styles of curriculum decision-making needed to be modified, primarily by a process of re-organization, but also by the addition and deletion of variables. Further, the trial usage of the conceptual tools in Table 3.5 revealed that advantages could be gained by including a third ideal style of curriculum decision-making that would expose an additional list of characteristics against which to compare actual curriculum committees.

Modifications to the list of variables and an explication of three ideal styles of curriculum decision-making are attended to in the following chapter.

Chapter 5

THREE IDEAL STYLES OF CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING

The present study served four purposes; namely to:

1. Identify, select, and categorize significant variables which distinguish alternative styles of curriculum decision-making;
2. Describe significant characteristics which each variable can display;
3. Isolate and label clusters of characteristics which logically stand together to form "ideal types" of curriculum decision-making styles;
4. Suggest ways in which these ideal types might be used as conceptual tools for describing and analyzing actual styles of curriculum decision-making.

Chapter 3 summarized the writer's efforts to fulfill these purposes by synthesizing data from the theoretical literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and from the case study reported in Chapter 4.

The current chapter is organized in two parts. Part A attends to the first three purposes noted above by outlining selected variables, describing some possible characteristics of each variable and grouping characteristics to form three ideal styles of curriculum decision-making. Part B attends to the final purpose by suggesting uses for the ideal styles of curriculum decision-making explicated in Part A.

PART A - VARIABLES, CHARACTERISTICS, STYLES

"A style of curriculum decision-making is a self-consistent array of characteristics which distinguish a group of persons engaged in choosing the intended ends and intended means of teaching and learning" (above, pp. 5 and 6). The three styles of curriculum decision-making explicated in this chapter are ideal types in that they are logical constructions that can be compared with empirical reality (Weber, 1949).

Variables

The characteristics of one ideal style of curriculum decision-making differ from the characteristics of other styles. The properties on which different characteristics reveal themselves are called variables (Kaplan, 1964, p. 32). The theoretical literature reviewed in Chapter 2, the writer's early conceptualizations described in Chapter 3, and the case study reported in Chapter 4 all served to demonstrate that there are many variables that can be used when distinguishing ideal styles of curriculum decision-making. Yet, it was recognized that a parsimonious list of variables would add comprehensibility to the styles of curriculum decision-making explicated in this study. To limit the number of variables, selection criteria were established and applied.

The selection criteria used in the present study, originally used by Parsons and isolated by Devereux (1961, p. 39), were the following:

1. The variables should be completely general and permit comparisons between groups of any sort;
2. The variables should be relevant for the frame of reference (i.e., paradigm) of whatever group is studied;
3. The variables should be relevant for the analysis of the particular functions being served by the group.

Categories of Variables

During the application of the above criteria, it became evident that a primary distinction needed to be made between variables that relate to the actual process of decision-making in small groups and variables which define the assumptions underlying the curriculum decision-making process. Further, it was apparent that some assumptions relate to the educational platform of decision-makers while others constitute the "root metaphors" (Guba and Clark, 1975) that define the basic paradigm of a group.

The drawing of such distinctions gave rise to the three categories of variables shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Three Categories of Variables that Distinguish Ideal Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making in Small Groups

Process variables	properties on which different characteristics of the curriculum decision-making process are revealed
Platform variables	properties on which different beliefs and values toward what the curriculum is and ought to be are revealed
Paradigm variables	properties on which different basic beliefs, values and ways of seeing the world are revealed

Using the above-noted selection criteria as screens and the three categories shown in Table 5.1 as organizing centres, it was possible to isolate twenty-five variables. These variables are listed below.

Basic Paradigm Variables

Watzlawick et al.(1967) suggested that all persons have a particular "way of being-in-the-world" (p. 226). Miller, Galanter and Pribram (1960) claimed that all organisms base their actions on images they hold about themselves and the world. In the present study, the term, "basic paradigm" is used to refer to man's "way of being-in-the-world", to his images of himself and his world, or, more specifically, to the unques-

tioned, tacit assumptions about the universe, man and society that define the pre-existing and habitual screens through which [people] see the world" (above, pp. 8,9).

This study offers the hypothesis that, when analyzing the curriculum decision-making style of a curriculum committee, it is necessary to describe the committee's basic paradigm. It is further hypothesized that differing paradigms can be distinguished according to selected variables. Though there are many possible variables from which to choose, it is hypothesized that the most significant variables to attend to in describing basic paradigms are:

1. View of the Universe
    a. Structure of the Universe
    b. Destiny of the Universe
2. View of Man
    a. Man's Reason for Being
    b. Man's Main Characteristics
3. View of Society
    a. Structure of Society
    b. Function of Society
    c. Change in Society

The hypotheses regarding paradigm variables are consistent with the discussions of basic paradigms that appear in Chapters 1 and 2. Alternative characteristics pertinent to each variable are described in a later section of this chapter.

Educational Platform Variables

Walker (1971a) claimed that curriculum decision-makers bring to their task "some notion of what is possible and desirable educationally" (p. 52). Notions of what the curriculum is and ought to be constitute the education-

al platform of a curriculum committee. It is also hypothesized that a curriculum committee's educational platform is an important factor in its style of curriculum decision-making and that the most significant variables to attend to in describing educational platforms are:

1. View of Curricular Ends
    a. Major ends of education
    b. Perceived role of the curriculum

2. View of Curricular Means
    a. Curricular content
    b. Teaching and Learning resources
    c. Teaching and Learning strategies
    d. Evaluation of teaching and learning

The hypotheses regarding educational platform variables is consistent with the discussion of educational platforms in Chapters 1 and 2, above. Alternative characteristics of each variable are described in a later section of this chapter.

Decision-Making Process Variables

It is further hypothesized that the decision-making processes employed by a curriculum committee are important components of its style of curriculum decision-making. In selecting variables on which to compare and contrast different decision-making processes, it is necessary to include variables that relate to the actual processes of decision-making, as well as variables that reveal characteristics of the committee that is making the decisions. It is hypothesized that the most significant variables to attend to in describing decision-making processes in small groups are:

1. Decision-Making Activities
    a. Mode of Decision-Making
    b. Priorities of Decision-Making

c. Relation of Ends and Means

2. Interaction in the External System
   a. Locus of Authority
   b. Effects of Feedback
   c. Implementation of Decisions
   d. Accountability

3. Interaction in the Internal System
   a. Interpersonal Relations
   b. Form of Leadership

4. Nature of Sentiments
   a. Feelings Toward the Environment
   b. Feelings Toward the Group
   c. Feelings Toward the Task

The hypothesis regarding decision-making process variables is consistent with the discussion of decision-making and small groups in Chapters 1 and 2. Major headings in the above list of variables were borrowed from Homans (1950) and modified for use in the present study. Alternative characteristics of each variable are described in a later section of this chapter.

Alternative Characteristics of Basic Paradigm Variables

Each of the variables listed above can display a wide range of characteristics. Many of the possible characteristics of each variable were revealed in earlier chapters. A brief outline of selected characteristics is offered here, not in an attempt to be exhaustive, but rather as a means of putting forward those characteristics which fit as parts of the ideal styles of curriculum decision-making explicated in this report.

The alternative characteristics of each paradigm variable outlined below were, for the most part, derived from or selected because of their congruency with the unidirectional, mutual causal, and random process paradigms outlined by Maruyama (1973); the technical cognitive interest in control, the practical cognitive interest in consensus, and the critical cognitive interest in emancipation described by Habermas (1971); and the garrison-state, second-phase industrial, and person-centred societal futures posed by Harman (1971, 1972, 1974). These works were reviewed in Chapter 3.

Additional characteristics of paradigm variables were derived or inferred from other literature and from the case study reported in Chapter 4.

View of the Universe

Structure and destiny of the universe. At the very foundation of a decision-maker's basic paradigm are his beliefs about the universe.[31] To some, the nature of the universe is predetermined. There is a great "master plan" that man can seek to find but may never understand. The universe is orderly, regulated and "no doubt unfolding as it should." Others regard the universe as self-generating, self-organizing and self-regulating. All elements in the cosmos are in more-or-less continuous harmony. Man and nature are part of a unified whole where, because of the equifinality principle, the final state of the system is determined by the interactions of its parts (Bertalanffy, 1968, p. 46). To still

31 For a fuller discussion of views of the universe, see Titus, 1946, Chapter I.

others, the universe is regarded as being in a state of decay. Entropic (and demonic) forces are at work, eroding the cosmos and bringing the world to a point of stultifying homogeneity.

View of Man

Man's characteristics and reason for being. Alternative views of man centre around the questions of why man exists and what he is like. Man may be regarded as an object, whose need for security allows him to be manipulated toward ends pre-determined by some higher authority. Alternately, man may be seen as a self-directing, emancipated[32] "being-in-the-world [who is] constituted not only by a single self but also by an extended self . . . who is also concerned about his world of other people and things" (Troutner, 1969, p. 143). Or, one can view man as a lone being, a single self whose "raison d'être" is self-aggrandizement.[33]

View of Society

Societal structures, functions, and changes. What is the structure of society? What are its functions? How does society change? As decision-makers respond to these questions, they reveal their views of society. Some people regard society as hierarchical and authoritarian, tending to dominate and massify[34] even those individuals who think they

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[32] Emancipation was used by Freire (1973) to refer to a release from oppression that can come about only through the praxiological interplay of reflection and action (p. 20).

[33] McGregor's, The Human Side of Enterprise (1960) outlined two contrasting views of human nature.

[34] Freire (1973) defined a massified society as one in which the people have been manipulated by the elite into an unthinking, manageable agglomeration (p. 8). See also Habermas (1971, p. 310).

are free. In such a view, societal changes are the product of decisions controlled by the elite.

A second view of society stresses that society is comprised of interdependent individuals who need each other in order to gain emancipation, because, "Much as a mountain needs a valley to be a mountain, I need a world of other people and things to be an I" (Troutner, 1969, p. 143). Changes in such a society can be initiated through the reaching of consensus by any small group. Because of the interconnectedness of society members, changes in one part of society tend to stimulate further change in other quarters.

Though Schmidtlein (1974) claimed that a completely unstructured society could not function, it is possible to conceive of a society in which independent individuals "do their own thing" with a minimum of interpersonal contact. In such a society, change would have to occur capriciously and, according to Bertalanffy (1968), would likely lead to "decay" rather than "progress" (p. 70).

Alternative Characteristics of Educational Platform Variables

Chapter 2 contained a review of five conceptions of the curriculum as put forward by Eisner and Vallance (1974); the institutional, membership, and autonomous modes of program operation as outlined in the Worth Report (1972); and the imitation, moulding and educability patterns of instruction as conceived by Lamm (1969). These works, coupled with other literature and with the case study reported in Chapter 4, constitute

the sources from which the alternative characteristics of educational platform variables were derived.

View of Curricular Ends

Major ends to be served by education. There has been a long and often intense debate over the question: "What are schools for?" Possibly the key issue in this debate is whether schools should serve to homogenize their clientele or to accentuate their differences. Schools are publicly-funded institutions. They have a clear mandate to accommodate both societal and individual values. What is not clear, however, is the relative emphasis to be given to each set of values. One view holds that the purpose of schooling is to sort, to classify, to rank, to categorize students according to the stations they will hold in a stratified society. The values of society, especially its economic and political values, are prime determinants of educational goals. Another view of curricular ends places societal values as secondary to the values of individuals. Proponents of this view hold that the two sets of values are not inconsistent. Rather, the school should be a place where each individual brings meaning to his life by finding community with others in a heterogeneous, yet coordinated, society. In a third view of curricular ends, the school is seen to exist in order to maximize diversity. Accordingly, educational goals are derived from the values of each individual.

Perceived role of the curriculum. Style of curriculum decision-making is influenced by the way in which decision-makers view the curriculum. Is the curriculum a static prescription, an instrument of control that by imposition dictates the nature of classroom activities?

Or, is the curriculum simply one more element in a cluster of dynamic influences that effect classroom interaction?[35]

At stake here is the relationship between curriculum and instruction. Conceived as a prescription, the curriculum is distinct from instruction. It is regarded as a static "something" -- a perfectable "plan for instruction" that, once developed and implemented, will be the key to Utopia. Instruction then becomes a matter of using the Utopian key to unlock the doors to the perpetual wisdom contained in the curriculum, a largely mechanical task performed by technicians called teachers. As the key to Utopia, the curriculum is an instrument of authoritarian control (Young, 1971, p. 4). It controls the nature of each student's learning opportunities by selecting from the total environment those parcels of knowledge with which he will be allowed to interact. Further, the curriculum controls the interpersonal relations in the classroom; it "either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching" (Taba, 1962, p. 10).

An alternative view of the nature of curriculum acknowledges that the curriculum must interact with other factors in the instructional situation:

> Actions within the instructional situation may be classified as curricular, situational and extraneous. That is to say,

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35 Wilhelms drew a similar distinction when he suggested that "a curriculum is far less 'what one teaches' that it is 'what one teaches with'" (1968, p. 60). It has also been argued that "teachers regard a curriculum plan more as a guide to their teaching than as a statement of the rules which are to govern its form and style" (Taylor, 1970, p. 253).

> for certain features of the situation, alternatives are possible but only within limits consistent with the intended outcomes; other features are responsive to situational variables without regard to curriculum; and finally, some observable features serve no curricular-instructional purpose whatever.(Johnson, 1968, p. 10)

The curriculum is one of many mutually significant influences that also include teaching, learning and instruction (Macdonald, 1965, p. 5); it is not necessarily the controlling variable.

Finally, there is the view that the curriculum has no real influence, if not developed by the individual using it. It is simply a "document", to be put on the shelf while the teacher and class "do their own thing."

View of Curricular Means

Parallel to the above characteristics of curricular ends, one can conceive of alternative curricular means. The content, resources, strategies and evaluation of teaching and learning can assume different characteristics.

Curricular content. The content of the curriculum can be "collected" into disciplines or subjects; "integrated" as problems or themes; or, left to arise from unstructured interests or concerns (Bernstein, 1971, pp. 63ff.).

Teaching and learning resources. The environment with which students interact can be prescribed, in which case there may be a limited number of resources available; selected through consensus, in which case, a more diverse list of resources may be available; or unspecified, in which case a theoretically unlimited range of resources may be available.

Teaching and learning strategies. One image of the classroom holds

that teaching and learning should be an exercise in behavior modification. The teacher uses competition, punishment and reward in his role as control agent over the child. Behavior modification strategies provide one means of achieving what Mead (1970, p. 23) called post-figurative learning, the kind of learning where the young learn from their forebears. A second image of the classroom features co-figurative learning, in which students cooperate to learn from and with each other, while the teacher is a guide and consultant.[36] Then, there is a third image of the classroom in which each learner learns by (and about) himself, with the teacher being only a source of information.

Evaluation of teaching and learning. When evaluating the processes and products of teaching and learning, evaluation data can be norm-referenced, group-referenced or self-referenced. The use of norm-referenced evaluation implies the presence of externally prescribed standards of achievement. Group-referenced evaluation is used in situations where group members have had a share in establishing educational goals and the criteria for their evaluation. Self-referenced evaluation is used where the individual sets his own standards.

Alternative Characteristics of Group Decision-Making Processes

Characteristics of the group decision-making process were derived

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36 Mead also outlined a style of learning called pre-figurative, in which "teachers" learn from "students".

from the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the case study reported in Chapter 4 and were categorized according to a modified form of the three major variables that Homans (1950) used in his theory of small groups.

Decision-Making Activities

Mode of decision-making. Decision-makers can take a number of approaches to their task. Their over-all stance can be comprehensive/prescriptive, clinical or incremental/remedial (Schmidtlein, 1974; Archibald, 1970; above, chapter 2). In the comprehensive/prescriptive approach, there is likely to be a hierarchical division of labour, with experts (in the upper echelons) taking a broad, more analytical purview of the total setting in which decisions will take effect and prescribing the activities of others at lower levels of the hierarchy.

In the clinical mode, where organizational growth is a major objective, all members of the group provide inputs to all decisions. Finally, in the incremental mode, decisions are reached without reference to the total context in which they are placed. Decisions result in a series of "seesaw advances" (Hirschman and Lindblom, 1962, p. 360) in which advances in one area remedy and/or stimulate advances in other areas.

Relation of ends/means. Ends are sometimes considered as preliminary to, and more important than, means. A form of "if-then" thinking is involved (Connelly, 1972, p. 168). On the other hand, ends and means can be regarded as mutualistic, in the sense that one influences the other in a simultaneous non-hierarchical manner (Aoki, 1974a, p. 28). "Ends-in-view are always being modified in reciprocal interplay with

the means" (Wick, 1972, p. 40).

It is conceivable, of course, that a curriculum committee will make no conscious distinction between ends and means. In such cases, the committee's apparent concern will likely be with deciding means. They may feel tacit agreement with goals set by others. Or, members may feel there is an unspoken understanding of goals that the committee shares. Or, they may expect that goals will clarify themselves once the more important means questions have been resolved.

Priorities of decision-making. Some curriculum committees demonstrate by the way they conduct their activities that they place high priority on productivity and efficiency. Others are willing to sacrifice some measure of efficiency in order to secure a greater amount of participation from a greater number of people, on the assumption that cooperative participation assures commitment to act upon decisions that are reached.[37] Still other committees place the satisfaction of individual members as more important than either efficiency or participation.

Interaction in the External System

When describing the interactions of a group, Homans (1950) distinguished between those interactions that occur in the external system (between the group and its environment) and in the internal system (within the group).

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[37] See footnote #40, below.

Locus of authority. A major determinant of the interactions that take place within the external system of a curriculum committee is the locus of authority. Authority can be centralized. Where such is the case, interactions between the committee and its environment tend to be unidirectional. Unilateral decisions of the central agency become edicts to the acted upon by other parts of the external system.

Authority can also be decentralized, taking one of three forms (MacMahon, 1961; Sherwood, 1969; Walsh, 1969). Simplest and probably most common is decentralization by administrative deconcentration. Deconcentration is a means of broadening the locus of decision-making by delegating some decisioning powers to subordinate field offices or functionaries. Ultimate control continues to rest with the central authority. Other forms of decentralization include statutory devolution and constitutional devolution. Devolution involves an actual transfer of autonomy, not merely delegation. Devolution by statute (e.g., The School Act transferring powers to local school districts) tends to perpetuate the final control of the central agency, since the central agency can unilaterally recall any powers it devolved. Constitutional devolution (e.g., The B.N.A. Act vesting control of education in the provinces) is the most genuine form of decentralization in that authority can revert to the central power only through bi-lateral agreement.

Effects of feedback. The interactions that occur between a curriculum committee and its environment are influenced by the kind of feedback that is given and the attention that is paid to feedback. Feedback can serve to counteract deviation or to amplify deviation (Maruyama, 1963).

Negative feedback to an innovative idea will tend to perpetuate the status quo. On the other hand, if innovative decisions of a group are given positive reinforcement by other elements in the external system, such reinforcement will tend to produce even further innovation. Conversely, positive feedback to "hold-the-line" decisions will tend to counteract deviation, while negative reinforcement of such decisions will prompt decision-makers to become more innovative. Of course, feedback will be neither deviation-counteracting nor deviation-amplifying unless feedback is recognized and acted upon by the committee.

Implementation of decisions. The activities of a curriculum committee usually result in a plan for the intended ends and intended means of teaching and learning.[38] This plan may or may not require dissemination.

The need for product dissemination varies according to the mandate of the curriculum committee. If committee members are designing an educative environment for only themselves, as would be the case when a classroom teacher and his students decide their own curriculum, then the dissemination problem is obviated. "Adopters" learn about a new product by participating in its development. On the other hand, curriculum decision-making can be undertaken by people who are removed from the classrooms in which products are to be used. In this case, the product needs to be "marketed," taking advantage of understandings such as those described by Rogers and Shoemaker (1971). Marketing techniques can

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[38] See definition of curriculum (above, chapter 1).

represent the "soft-sell" approach in which new products are available only on request (Coutts, 1974, p. 15). Alternatively, impact activities may be employed, including the power-coercive, empirical-rational, or normative-re-educative strategies outlined by Chin and Benne (1969, pp. 32ff.).

Power-coercive strategies rely on the use of legitimate or illegitimate power to force subjugation of the weaker to the influence of the stronger. Where this strategy is applied, curriculum changes are accepted because the intended adopters have no other choice. Empirical-rational strategies are based on the assumption that man is rational and will accept changes if convinced that they will further his own interests. Normative-re-educative change strategies are based on the assumption that man is more than just a rational animal. Irrespective of the intellectual appeal offered by a proposed change, the change will not be accepted until there has been an accommodation reached between the proposed change and the values and attitudes of the potential adopter.

Accountability. Curriculum committees exercise responsibilities for which they are accountable to some person or agency within the external system. They may be accountable to some superordinate authority outside their own group (e.g., to a school board, to the Department of Education). Alternately, they may be accountable to themselves as a group and to the teachers, parents and learners who are their clients.[39]

[39] Speaking to the issue of accountability in curriculum decision-making, Duke (1974) said, "If there is no shared responsibility and shared accountability, then one can question how real and how meaningful decentralization is" (p. 70). At the same time, Bevan (1974) questioned whether shared decision-making and accountability were in any way compatible: "Shared decision-making with collective guilt is not a viable concept. Accountability has to be particularized" (pp. 102, 103).

Interaction in the Internal System

Interpersonal relations. Within the internal system represented by a curriculum committee, the interpersonal relations between and among members can assume many characteristics. It is possible that committee members will compete with one another, each "carrying a torch" for his own ideas in a zero-sum game where what one person wins, someone else loses (Maruyama, 1971, p. 15). It is also possible that committee members will turn their interactions into a cooperative, symbiotic experience in which everyone can be a winner.

Finally, committee members may choose to reduce or obviate interaction. They may continue to co-exist in a group with minimal cohesiveness or they may choose to separate.

Form of leadership. A major determinant of the kind of interaction manifested by a committee is the form of leadership that is present. Lewin, Lippitt and White (above, chapter 2) claimed that groups differ depending upon whether they have an authoritarian, democratic or laissez faire form of leadership.[40] Groups also differ depending upon whether leadership is positional (i.e., appointed or elected) or

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[40] Doll (1972) described two "postures" that leaders can assume. One posture is task-centred and authoritarian. A second posture is person-centred, non-authoritarian and non-directive. Halpin (1966) referred to leaders who score high on "initiating structure" and to others who stress "showing consideration." These two categories parallel the idiographic and nomothetic dimensions of social systems first identified by Getzels and Guba and elaborated by Getzels, Lipham and Campbell (1970, pp. 52ff.). A succinct review of leadership categorizations is to be found in Patrick (1973, pp. 4ff.).

situational (i.e., emerging from different sources as the circumstances change).

Buckley (1967) made a further distinction between leadership that relies on power and leadership that rests on authority. He defined power as "control or influence over the actions of others to promote one's goals without their consent, against their 'will', or without their knowledge." Authority, he defined as "the direction or control of the behavior of others for the promotion of collective goals, based on some ascertainable form of their knowledgeable consent" (p. 186). Though both terms imply influence or control, there are two important distinctions between the terms. First, power is exercised for the private satisfaction of the wielder; authority is used for the collective good. The ultimate test is "whose ends, goals, and values are being promoted and by what (necessarily nonrational) process were they chosen for promotion over other ends?" (p. 198).

Nature of Sentiments

The term sentiment "implies not a psychological reality but a cultural reality; it describes a type of behavior which can be observed, not a state of mind which must be inferred" (Firth, 1936, p. 160). As members of a curriculum committee interact in the joint conduct of activities, they express sentiments toward other parts of the external system (i.e., toward their environment), toward other members of the internal system (i.e., toward the group), and toward the task on which they are working.

Sentiments toward the environment. Committee members can regard the external environment as an hierarchical system in which they hold either a superior or subservient position. Where the external system is so perceived, committees show at least some degree of hostility toward their environment. Superior groups develop hostility toward subordinate groups and vice-versa.[41]

Committee members can also see the external system as a network of interdependent entities. Where the external system is regarded as interdependent, committees share a sense of unity with their environment that gives rise to feelings of mutual acceptance. Finally, the committee can regard other parts of the external system as irrelevant, in which case feelings of disinterest prevail.

Sentiments toward the group. Individuals can manifest a variety of sentiments toward other members of a curriculum committee. They can feel that the committee is a pragmatic expediency that facilitates the completion of a task. Alternately, they may develop a sense of loyalty toward the group, a desire to be supportive of other group members. It is also possible for committee members to simply tolerate each other, hoping that no one committee member will interfere with what they want to do as individuals.

Sentiments toward the task. The sentiments that a committee feels toward its task can be expressed in terms of commitment. Commitment may

41 Homans (1950) developed a series of hypotheses regarding the effects of authority relations on the sentiments that a group develops toward other elements in the social system.

be extrinsically motivated by the expectation of rewards or punishments, in which case the goals of the committee do not parallel the goals of what Torgunrud (1969) has called "the procedural task-masters". Commitment will be greater in situations where "relevance resonance" is present. Maruyama defined relevance resonance simply as "convergence of purposes" (1969, p. 243) and later suggested that such resonance can only be achieved when goals are generated through the interactions of people from the grass roots (1971, p. 25). Finally, commitment to a task is also strong when there is a feeling that completion of the task will bring intrinsic satisfaction to the individual performing the task.

Styles

By grouping the characteristics described above, three ideal styles of curriculum decision-making were constructed (Table 5.2).

The Hierarchical Style of Curriculum Decision-Making

The basic paradigm. At the foundation of the hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making is a basic paradigm that Maruyama (1973) labelled "unidirectional". Habermas (1971) characterized proponents of this style as having a technical cognitive interest in control. The hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making is consistent with Harman's (1972) notion of the second-phase industrial society but may also display features of the garrison-state.

This ideal style of curriculum decision-making is based on a belief that the universe is and should be orderly, hierarchically structured,

Table 5.2

Selected Characteristics of Three Ideal Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making in Small Groups

Variables / Characteristics	Hierarchical Style of Curriculum Decision-Making	Mutualistic Style of Curriculum Decision-Making	Autonomous Style of Curriculum Decision-Making
Decision Process			
Decision-Making Activities			
Mode of Decision-Making	Comprehensive, prescriptive	Clinical, consensual	Incremental, remedial
Priorities of Decision-Making	Efficient, productive	Participatory	Individually satisfying
Relation of Ends and Means	Hierarchical, sequential	Interactive, reciprocal	Simultaneous, implicit
Interaction in the External System			
Locus of Authority	Centralized or deconcentrated	Shared, devolved by statute	Independent, devolved by constitution
Effects of Feedback	Deviation-counteracting	Deviation-amplifying	Minimally influential
Implementation of Decisions	Power-coercive, empirical-rational	Normative-re-educative, used by developer	Used by developer
Accountability	To external authority	To group and to clients	To self as individual
Interaction in the Internal System			
Interpersonal Relations	Competetive	Cooperative, symbiotic	Co-existential, separatist
Form of Leadership	Authoritarian, positional, power-based	Democratic, situational, authority-based	Laissez faire
Nature of Sentiments			
Feelings toward the environment	Hostile, superior/subservient	Oneness	Disinterested
Feelings toward the group	Pragmatic	Supportive	Tolerant
Feelings toward the task	Extrinsicly motivated	Resonant	Intrinsicly motivated
Educational Platform			
View of Curricular Ends			
Major Ends of Education	To serve societal values	To serve individual and societal values	To serve individual values
Perceived Role of the Curriculum	Prescriptive	Interactive	Incidental, used when relevant
View of Curricular Means			
Curricular Content	Collected, discipline-centred	Integrated, thematic	Random, interest-centred
Teaching and Learning Resources	Prescribed, limited	Optional, diverse	Unspecified, unlimited
Teaching and Learning Strategies	Teacher dominated, post-figurative	Co-figurative	Self-directed
Evaluation of Teaching and Learning	Norm-referenced	Group-referenced	Individual-referenced
Basic Paradigm			
View of the Universe			
Structure of the Universe	Ordered, hierarchical	Self-organizing, symbiotic	Unstructured, disordered
Destiny of the Universe	Pre-determined	Self-directing	Entropic
View of Man			
Man's Reason for Being	To serve higher authority	To live in harmony with his world	To seek self-satisfaction
Man's Main Characteristic	Objectified, security-seeking	Self-directing, consensus-seeking	Introspective, self-reliant
View of Society			
Structure of Society	Stratified, authoritarian	Interdependent, harmonious	Unstructured
Function of Society	To massify individuals	To facilitate intersubjectivity in a framework of self-understanding	To maximize independence
Change in Society	Controlled by elite	Praxiological, consensual	Capricious

and moving toward pre-determined ends. Man must fit into the order of the universe. He gains security by serving those above him in the natural hierarchies that exist in the universe and society. Persons with a hierarchical paradigm regard society as stratified. Members of the societal elite assume the right to decide the future of society and to use other persons in ways that further societal ends.

The educational platform. Consistent with tenets of their basic paradigm, proponents of the hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making favour a prescriptive curriculum that serves to classify students according to the roles they will play in a stratified society. To this end, the content of the curriculum is discipline-centred and built around prescribed textbooks and a limited range of additional resources. Hierarchical style curriculum decision-makers hold an image of classroom interaction in which the teacher is control-agent and students are subjugated. When the results of teaching and learning are evaluated, students (and probably teachers) are classified according to a curve of normal distribution.

The decision-making processes. The hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making employs a comprehensive/prescriptive mode of decision-making that places high priority on efficiency and productivity. Deciding upon ends is the prerogative of a central agency and precedes the choosing of means, a task which may be left to decision-makers at other levels.

While innovations that emanate from lower levels are likely to be counteracted, changes initiated by the elite are implemented through the

use of power, coercion and by appeals to the rational self-interests of the potential adopters who are accountable to the elite.

Committees employing a hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making are characterized by competition among members. The leaders of such committees probably wield power that is based on their position.

Participants in the hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making are likely to feel either superior or subservient to others in their environment and, as a result, some hostility may be present. If similar feelings exist toward other members of the committee, they are concealed for the pragmatic reason that bringing them into the open might limit the productivity of the group.

A final characteristic of committees employing the hierarchical style of curriculum decision-making is a commitment to the task that arises mainly from extrinsic motivation rather than from an inherent interest in the task.

The Mutualistic Style of Curriculum Decision-Making

The basic paradigm. The ethos of mutualistic curriculum decision-making derives from a basic belief in mutual causality, a conviction that elements in a system are mutually influential (Maruyama, 1963, 1973). Proponents of this style have a practical cognitive interest in both consensus and emancipation (Habermas, 1971). The mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making is consistent with Harman's (1972) notion of the person-centred society.

This style is based on a belief that the state of the universe is influenced as much by the ongoing interaction of its parts as by its

initial conditions or by the final state to be reached.[42] Elements in the universe interact with each other to achieve both mutualistic symbiosis, where all the parts benefit, and organismic symbiosis where the whole also benefits (Maruyama, 1973, p. 15).

Consistent with the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making is a belief that men, if allowed to exercise their natural free will,[43] will direct themselves toward the establishment of harmonious relations among themselves and between themselves and their environment. Harmony among the members of society is seen as crucial because the individuals and groups that comprise society are highly interdependent. Supporters of the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making believe that the function of society is to facilitate intersubjective relationships among emancipated individuals.[44] They support Freire's (1973) claim that members of society must share "a sense of participation in a common life" (p. 24).

To be consistent with mutualistic curriculum decision-making, changes in society must emanate from the "expertise" of community people

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[42] See Bertalanffy (1968, pp. 44ff.) for a discussion of the effects of causality and finality on the state of organizations.

[43] For a brief but lucid clarification of the indeterminist/determinist issue, see Bay (1965, pp. 22, 23 and Chapter 3).

[44] Intersubjectivity is used here to refer to the interaction of separate conscious minds (Kockelmans, 1967; Habermas, 1971, p. 310).

(Maruyama, 1973, p. 9) who are critically conscious of their past, their present, and their potential futures. The choice of futures is decided through praxis, the ability to reflect upon actions and act upon reflections.

The educational platform. The mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making is characterized by an educational platform in which education is conceived as a lifelong search for meaning, an experience in living, not just a preparation for living (Rogers, 1972, p. 419). Education is intended to serve both individual and societal needs, since the two are so interdependent. Curriculum, the intended ends and intended means which guide teaching and learning, is recognized as being one of many interacting variables that influence what takes place in the educative environment. Situational factors such as physical arrangements, teacher personality, and unanticipated events are among the variables that mutualistic decision-makers see as interacting with the curriculum.

The educational means which coincide with the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making include content that is selected for its relevance to a particular theme or problem. The integration of knowledge is favoured by mutualistic decision-makers. Because knowledge is integrated, and not collected into distinct disciplines (Bernstein, 1971), there is the need for a much more extensive and diverse range of teaching and learning resources than what can be contained in a few prescribed textbooks. Students and teachers interact with these resources and with each other. The interaction is characterized by mutual respect and a search for consensus, rather than by competition and efforts to gain control. The distinctions between "teachers" and

"learners" become blurred as participants learn from each other through what Mead (1970) called co-figurative learning. The means and criteria to be employed in evaluating the outcomes of co-figurative learning are decided by participants in the learning experience, using the growth of individuals and the group as points of reference.

The decision-making processes. The mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making is characterized by a mode of decision-making that Archibald (1970) labelled as "clinical". This mode has much in common with the organization development (O.D.) movement in which consensus is an important feature of decision-making. "Group consensus is a decision-making method in which all participants contribute their thoughts and feelings and all share in the final decision" (Schmuck et al, 1972, p. 258). The emphases on participation and consensus are consistent with the priority that mutualistic decision-makers place on maintenance and growth of the groups in which they work. It is their belief that group participation in the decision-making process enhances the legitimacy, effectiveness and ultimate efficiency of decision-making.

Mutualistic decision-makers perceive ends and means as being closely inter-related and mutually influential (Aoki, 1974a). Accordingly, it makes little sense to have one group determine ends while another group establishes means. Both tasks are shared through the statutory devolution of curricular authority. The groups who share authority tend to amplify deviation by positively reinforcing each other's innovative ideas.

Curricula developed through the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making are most often implemented by the developers in their own instructional settings. Where there is the need for dissemination of a new curriculum, use is made of normative-re-educative strategies in which there is an attempt to reach an accommodation between the proposed change and the values and feelings of potential adopters. This accommodation is seen as necessary because mutualistic decision-makers hold themselves accountable to their own group and to the teachers and students who are their clients.

Interactions within a committee that is using the mutualistic style of curriculum decision-making tends to be cooperative and symbiotic. Democratic leadership emerges according to the different situations in which the group finds itself and is based on legitimate authority rather than positional power. As an outcome of cooperative interaction, mutualistic decision-makers gain a sense of "oneness" with their environment, a willingness to support other members of the committee in their search for meaning, and a feeling of resonance that arises from a shared commitment to the tasks on which the committee is working.

The Autonomous Style of Curriculum Decision-Making

The basic paradigm. The autonomous style of curriculum decision-making is consistent with the random process paradigm described by Maruyama (1973) and is founded on the belief that the natural and best state of the universe is one of disordered randomness in which elements are characterized by independence and a minimum of interaction. The scientific corollary of the basic paradigm underlying the autonomous

style of curriculum decision-making is the second principle of thermodynamics. This principle states that, "in a closed system, a certain quantity called entropy . . . [imparts to the system] a tendency to maximum disorder" (Bertalanffy, 1968, p. 39).

Entropic forces, "self-acting processes in nature" (Titus, 1946, p. 37), are regarded by autonomous decision-makers as being dominant over the forces of metabolism or vitalism in determining the destiny of the universe. Entropy will eventually bring the universe to its most natural and most probable state of distribution which is disorder.

Man, too, is seen as being subject to entropic forces. His reason for being is to "do his own thing" in the pursuit of self-satisfaction. Man's main characteristics, according to supporters of the autonomous style of curriculum decision-making, are self-reliance and a basic concern with his own self-interests. In order that man might be unfettered in the pursuit of his own self-interests, society is or should be unstructured. Changes in society should occur capriciously, as man discovers new wants and needs through introspection.

The educational platform. The autonomous style of curriculum decision-making is characterized by an educational platform which holds that the major goal of education is to satisfy the needs of individual students. Since there is a capricious quality to these needs, the curriculum, if there is one, is not a significant determinant of learning opportunities. The curriculum, being a statement of intent that is prepared prior to teaching and learning (above, chapter 1), may or may not be relevant to the "here and now" interests of students and

will be ignored if not relevant.

Educational means that are consistent with the autonomous mode of curriculum decision-making include content that is selected according to the interests of individual students, learning resources that must be diverse enough to accommodate individual interests, classroom interaction in which students are self-directed and teachers are a resource person rather than a control agent or guide, and evaluation that is referenced to standards set by each individual participant.

The decision-making processes. When persons who favour the autonomous mode of curriculum decision-making meet in small groups to make curricular decisions, they do so in order to derive individual satisfaction, often to remedy a situation which has been causing them some distress. Such groups employ an incremental approach to decision-making. They treat both ends and means simultaneously, without consciously distinguishing one from the other (Schmidtlein, 1974, p. 6).

Because a committee employing the autonomous style of curriculum decision-making values its independence, there is little interaction between it and other elements in the external system. Accordingly, there is a minimum of feedback from the external system to the committee; what feedback there is probably has limited impact.

Where the centralization of authority has eroded the independence of a curriculum committee, they strive to regain their autonomy through devolution (Walsh, 1969). In such a devolutionary situation, individual committee members are accountable only to themselves.

The internal system represented by a committee employing an autono-

mous mode of curriculum decision-making is characterized by a lack of cohesiveness. Members co-exist as separate entities, each pursuing private goals. Leadership is likely to be nominal and laissez-faire. The task of the leader is to make it possible for each individual to function by interfering as little as possible with others.

The feeling of committee members toward the environment is one of disinterest. Toward other members of the committees, there are feelings of tolerance, a sense of "live and let live". To the extent that the task of the committee leads to the satisfaction of individual needs, there is a high level of commitment and intrinsic motivation.

PART B - UTILIZING THE CONCEPT "STYLE OF CURRICULUM DECISION-MAKING"

This study has explicated the concept "style of curriculum decision-making" and outlined three ideal styles by synthesizing data from many fields of inquiry. As suggested in Chapter 1, the results of this study have potential utility for many categories of workers in the field of curriculum and instruction. In order to accentuate the potential utility of the study, this final section describes ways in which the three styles of curriculum decision-making explicated above can further the work of persons who are conducting research on curriculum decision-making, teaching about curriculum decision-making, or actually engaging in curriculum decision-making.

Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making as the Subject of Needed Research

The Testing of Inherent Assumptions

The present study was an attempt to move the field of curriculum beyond its moribund state (Schwab, 1972) by extending the range of variables that are used in the description and analysis of curriculum decision-making and by drawing attention to alternative perspectives from which curricular problems can be viewed.

In completing this task, the writer purposely avoided the reductionism that might have been evident had he been restricted by the boundaries of academic disciplines and by the rigors of empirical-analytical methodology. However, by transcending discipline boundaries, the writer accepted the inevitability of working with many untested assumptions. By setting aside the logical positivists' demand for the verification or falsification of statements (Kaplan, 1964, pp. 36,37), it was accepted that these assumptions would not be tested in the present study.

That is not to say, though, that the presence of untested assumptions was unrecognized, nor that eventual testing of these inherent assumptions was considered unimportant. To the contrary, it is recommended that the assumptions underlying the current study be the subject of further research. Verification procedures need to be applied to the assumptions that:

1. "Style of curriculum decision-making" is something other than an hypostatized concept;
2. Different curriculum committees are characterized by different styles of curriculum decision-making;

3. A committee's style of curriculum decision-making can be analyzed and described;
4. Alternative styles of curriculum decision-making can be distinguished according to a common set of variables;
5. A style of curriculum decision-making is comprised of a basic paradigm, an educational platform and a decision-making process;
6. Characteristics of curriculum decision-maker's paradigms determine characteristics of their educational platforms and decision-making processes;
7. There is a strong positive correlation between characteristics of curriculum decision-makers' educational platforms and the decision-making processes they employ;
8. "Ideal type" styles will be useful in analysis and description;
9. Characteristics of a given ideal style of curriculum decision-making are "self-consistent";
10. An actual curriculum committee manifests a style of curriculum decision-making whose characteristics are "self-consistent".

Some Appropriate Methodologies

Researchers can employ a variety of methods in testing the above assumptions. Some of the assumptions stated above (e.g., number 7) might be tested by empirical-analytical techniques which seek to corraborate by empirical observation. Most of the assumptions, however, lend themselves to examination by the hermeneutic-interpretive sciences where the "test" of a stated assumption is its usefulness in the construction of shared meaning, or by the critical sciences where the "test" of a stated assumption

is its usefulness in revealing "underlying, hidden or unreflected aspects of social life" (van Manen, 1974, p. 6).

Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making as Content for Pre-Service and In-Service Education

The increasing tendency to decentralize curricular authority is accompanied by demands to provide opportunities for educators (both pre-service and in-service), parents, and learners to gain greater insights into curriculum decision-making. To meet these demands, universities, school systems, departments of education, and teachers' associations are offering courses, workshops, seminars, institutes and conferences with the objective of preparing interested persons for their roles in curriculum decision-making.

It is recommended that the three styles of curriculum decision-making explicated above be used as part of the content for such learning opportunities. The following suggestions may be helpful:

1. Either inductive or deductive methods may be used in bringing about an understanding of different styles of curriculum decision-making. The writer brought about an awareness of the three paradigms represented in Table 5.2 by having workshop participants group and label numbers of advertising slogans. (e.g., The Ford ad, "The car you drive bespeaks your place in the community" was recognized as being directed to those with a hierarchical paradigm; the Safeway ad, "Since we're neighbours, let's be friends" was seen as appealing to people's mutualistic

tendencies; the MGB slogan, "The Great Escape" was regarded as an attempt to capitalize on people's desire for independence, autonomy, isolation. Interestingly, though the political and economic life of North America is still predominantly hierarchical, the scions of Madison Avenue foretell a paradigmatic shift by including mutualistic reasoning in the vast majority of current advertisements.) An understanding of alternative educational platforms can be taught inductively by analyzing descriptions of different school settings to identify contrasting ends and means. Probably the best way to teach alternative group decision-making processes is to have "students" engage in some actual decision-making for a short time, then analyze their processes with the help of Table 5.2. Appointing a group member to be process observer and/or having the whole group engage in reflective inquiry are useful techniques for analyzing decision-making processes.

2. There might be advantages to highlighting a select few of the twenty-five variables shown in Table 5.2. "As few as you may, as many as you must" (Homans, 1950) simplifies the learning task and is especially appropriate in seminars where time is short. Basic paradigms can be compared by attending to "Structure of the Universe", "Man's Reason for Being", and "Function of Society". Educational platforms can be compared by attending to "Major Ends of Education", "Curricular Content", "Teaching and Learning Strategies". Decision-making

processes can be compared by attending to "Mode of Decision-Making", "Priorities of Decision-Making", "Locus of Authority", "Form of Leadership", and "Feelings Toward the Task".

3. Emphasis might be placed on the fact that ideal types are not necessarily representative of reality. The styles outlined in Table 5.2 act as patterns against which to compare reality.
4. Probably the major objective of introducing the concept of style and the three ideal types depicted in Table 5.2 is to raise the critical consciousness of curriculum decision-makers. Educators are often accused of mindlessness, of reaching decisions without considering their own motivations, the other factors impinging on their decisions, or the long-range implications of what they decide. (Witness Elboin-Dror's (1970) claim that disjointed incrementalism is the dominant mode of decision-making in education.) An understanding of the concept "style of curriculum decision-making", an awareness of the variables which comprise styles, and a knowledge of characteristics of alternative styles should help curriculum decision-makers to be both conscious and critical of what they are doing.

Styles of Curriculum Decision-Making as Conceptual Tools in the Designative, Appraisive, and Prescriptive Analysis of Curriculum Committees

The styles of curriculum decision-making explicated above can be

utilized by curriculum committees that are interested in planning ahead of time what style they will employ and in analyzing their style during and subsequent to periods of decision-making activity.

For purposes of both planning and analysis, committees might ask themselves three types of questions:

1. "What is?" questions which give rise to designative inquiry about the alternative styles of curriculum decision-making that are available for use in their particular environment;
2. "What should be?" questions which prompt appraisive inquiry about the styles of curriculum decision-making which they value;
3. "What will be?" questions which stimulate prescriptive inquiry about the style of curriculum decision-making that they will employ in the future (Morris, 1964; Brissey, 1968, Aoki, 1971).

Designative Inquiry

When designative inquiry relative to their style of curriculum decision-making is carried out by a curriculum committee, the inquiry should seek to determine the state of the environment of which the committee is a part. Each of the variables listed in Table 5.2 can become the subject of one or more designative questions. Some sample questions include:

1. Do we have available to us an information base conducive to the use of comprehensive, analytical decision-making processes?
2. Is curricular authority in our school system centralized, shared or devolved?
3. Are we accountable to external authority, to

ourselves as a group, to ourselves as individuals?

4. Are we free to choose the form of leadership we want?
5. What motives do curriculum committee members bring to their task?
6. What do most persons in our society consider to be the major purposes of education?
7. What form of evaluation is used in our school system?
8. What is our view concerning the natural order of the universe?
9. What is our view concerning the dominant characteristics of the children with whom our curriculum will be used?
10. What is our view concerning the nature of the society in which our curriculum will be used?

Appraisive Inquiry

The purpose of the appraisive inquiry about styles of curriculum decision-making which is carried out by curriculum committees should be to clarify their own values. Some sample questions, based on the variables in Table 5.2, include:

1. What should be the relative priorities we place on efficiency, participation and individual satisfaction?
2. What implementation strategies do we favour?
3. Do we want the interpersonal relations of committee members to be characterized by competitiveness, cooperation or separation?
4. What kinds of feedback do we want from our environment?

5. What role do we want our curriculum to play in the teaching/learning situation?
6. Do we want to prescribe a limited range of teaching/learning resources?
7. Do we prefer a universe that is symbiotic?
8. Should societal change be controlled by the elite?

Prescriptive Inquiry

The purpose of prescriptive inquiry about styles of curriculum decision-making that is carried out by curriculum committees should be to decide the kind of style they will employ in their future activities. Some sample questions include:

1. Will we make decision concerning curricular ends before, after, or simultaneously with decisions on curricular means?
2. Will we reinforce innovative ideas?
3. Will the objectives of our curriculum emphasize the needs of individuals?
4. Will we organize knowledge according to the subject disciplines?
5. Will we support our belief in man's capacity for self-direction by allowing students to plan their own activities?
6. Will we design a curriculum that perpetuates a stratified society?

Conclusion

The present study explicated three ideal styles of curriculum decision-making. As a result of this study, curriculum committees may come to understand better the many variables and characteristics that comprise their particular styles of curriculum decision-making. Possibly the ideas synthesized by this study will serve as conceptual tools that facilitate praxis; the three ideal styles of curriculum decision-making explicated above may make it easier for curriculum committees to reflect upon their actions and act upon their reflections.

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